

HISTOPI ASMOSIS

HISTOPLASMOSIS

Edited by

HENRY C SWELANY, M D

Visson i State Sanatorium

Mount Vernon Missouri



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**This book is affectionately dedicated
to the memory of my late wife**

Ethyle M Sweany

PREFACE

There is not the least doubt about the propriety and need for a monograph on histoplasmosis. A disease that has rocketed to the forefront of medicine is his histoplasmosis within the last twelve years demands a clear, concise, authoritative and all inclusive exposition of the subject. This disease has so mimicked other diseases, especially tuberculosis, that it has caused much confusion in diagnosis and treatment of patients in the past. The medical profession will be eager to find out more about this disease that has so many perfect masquerades. It is hoped that this book will achieve the intended goal and help to clear up some of the confusion that has existed.

Credit for initiating this project must lie with the publisher Charles C. Thomas, who has recognized the need for such a work for many years and has made several attempts to have someone write on the subject. Upon seeing some material that the present editor was about to publish on the subject, Mr. Thomas thought it was what he had been looking for and suggested that I write the book he had in mind.

Certainly that was a flattering offer, but I knew all too well that the work in this field had become so specialized that any attempt I should make alone would be only a cheap imitation of what was needed. The present work is a result of a counter proposal, namely, that leaders in each specialty should be asked to write chapters along the line of their special interest and that I was to edit the project and contribute what I could in the field I knew best. From this joint effort there has resulted a work that has exceeded our fondest expectation.

While several leading authorities, much to our regret, were too preoccupied to join in the task, others have taken over with little more than the loss of the name of the outstanding specialist. As a matter of fact, the majority of the chapters are written by the most active research men in their particular fields at the present time and the result is generally more down to date than what

might have been prepared by the men who are more widely known. As it is, most of the chapters are written by the present leaders in the field whose names are second to none in the work each has undertaken.

It should be pointed out also that some of the authors have been asked and graciously consented to write on subjects a little afield from their greatest interest and consequently most effective potential. Nobody however can detect in the least any defects in the text because of these special assignments. Some are equally adept in more than one field.

In such a work it is only natural to have some incongruities and repetition but the overlapping has been surprisingly little. This is perhaps due to proper selection of the chapter headings. In some such as the Saprophytic Reservoirs of Histoplasmosis, the Geographic Distribution and the Skin Reactions repetition may be expected. As also with the Introduction and History.

It is recognized that a subject that is so new as the many problems involved in histoplasmosis will require frequent revision to keep knowledge up to date. This we shall endeavor to do if there is a demand. For the present we must see how this first attempt will fill the need.

Recognition of all who helped in this effort would be rather difficult since there were numerous small favors performed by many who would not expect nor merit any more than verbal recognition. Of those who performed noteworthy contributions mention should be made of the many who prepared chapters in the many specialties. Their names appear at the heads of the respective chapters. Dr Charles A. Brasher has been most cooperative in lending his time and facilities of the institution as well as his secretary Mrs Louina Baker. Along with them are included Mrs Mary H. Wicks, Miss Dorothy Kent, Mrs Hildred Cox who helped in typing the manuscript and Mrs Lois L. Kera for assistance in proofreading and preparing the index.

Most important in helping to bring this work to fruition were the untiring efforts of my late wife Mrs Ethyle M. Sweany. Mention should also be made of the assistance in many ways given by

my colleagues Dr David F Corelick Dr Fred C Collier and Mr James L. Jones

Last but not least in fact the moving force behind the whole work is that of the publisher Mr Charles C Thomas and his able assistants whose work as usual is superb in every way

H C.S

CONTENTS

	<i>Page</i>
<i>Contributors</i>	v
<i>Preface</i>	ix
<i>Chapter</i>	
Introduction by HENRY EDMUND MELENEY	3
The History of Histoplasmosis by C ERALD L. BAUM	11
Morphological and Physiological Characteristics of <i>Histoplasma Capsulatum</i> by LEO PINE	10
Saprophytic Reservoirs of <i>Histoplasma</i> by CHESTER W. EMMONS	70
Geographic Distribution of <i>Histoplasma Capsulatum</i> by LINDO AJELLO	88
Resistance of Animals and Man to Histoplasmosis by S. B. SALVIN	99
Epidemiology of Histoplasmosis by MICHAEL L. FERGUSON	114
Diagnostic Procedures in the Study of <i>Histoplasma Capsulatum</i> by HOWARD W. TARNH	119
The Serology of Histoplasmosis by DANIEL J. TENENBERG	168
The Histoplasmin Skin Test by CARROLL E. CALMER and PHYLLIS Q. EDWARDS	189
The Identification of <i>Histoplasma</i> in Smears and Microsections by Staining Methods by ROBERT W. MOWRY and J. K. FRENKEL	211
The Pathogenesis of Histoplasmosis in Animals by JOHN J. PROCKNOW	216
The Pathogenesis of Histoplasmosis in the Human Body by HENRY C. SWEENEY	268
The Primary Lesion in Histoplasmosis by JAN SCHWARTZ	292
The Pathology of Circumscribed Localized Lesions of Histoplasmosis by THOMAS F. ELCAFTT	311
The General Pathology of Histoplasmosis by HENRY C. SWEENEY	318

HISTOPLASMOSIS

Koenigsnographic Aspects of Histoplasmosis by FREDERIC N. SILVERMAN	337
Clinical Types of Histoplasmosis by MICHAEL L. FURCOLOW	382
The Diagnosis of Histoplasmosis by W. D. SUTLIFF	405
Differential Diagnosis by HENRY PINKERTON	424
Medical Management of Histoplasmosis by J. LEWIS YATES H. VERNON LANGFELDTIG and C. A. BRASHER	449
Surgery for Pulmonary Histoplasmosis by JOHN W. POLA	472
The Place of Histoplasmosis in the Practice of Medicine by JOHN H. SEABURY	492
Summary	504
Author Index	521
Subject Index	525

INTRODUCTION

HENRY EDWARD MEENEY

The development of our knowledge of histoplasmosis is one of the most fascinating stories in the annals of American medicine. It is a story studded with coincidences and with examples of mental alertness, persistence, ingenuity and cooperation in scientific research. It brings great credit to modern medical and biological investigation in the United States where practically all of the fundamental research on the subject has been conducted.

Discovered in the Panama Canal Zone in 1905 by Samuel Taylor Darling, a young American pathologist who was in search of cases of visceral leishmaniasis, it was established as a fungus disease in 1912 by a Brazilian, Henrique de Rocha Lima, in Hamburg through comparison with a similar equine parasite. It remained unrecognized in the United States until a footnote in the writer's (1) paper on the histopathology of kala-azar in the Chinese literature in 1925 called it to the attention of an alert pathologist, Cecil J. Watson, and his parasitological colleague, William A. Riley, in Minnesota when they discovered similar parasites in the autopsy tissues of an endogenous case of splenomegaly.

After another interval of four years a second coincidence occurred when the writer, then at Vanderbilt University in Nashville, Tennessee, received from John F. Kessel (2) in Los Angeles a tissue section from an autopsy containing parasites which were suspected of being Leishmania but which resembled Histoplasma. The section was shown to Edwin H. Tompkins who was studying blood cells by supravital staining. This led, after another three years, to the recognition by Dodd and Tompkins of the first case identified before death, in an infant born in the Vanderbilt University hospital, and to the cultivation and description of the parasite by DeMonbreun. Following the publication of that work fatal cases were recognized with increasing frequency, mainly in the central valley of the United States but also in the middle Atlantic

rats and other burrowing animals in an endemic area in Virginia and also from rats and skunks in Georgia where a very small proportion of the population reacted to histoplasmin. Their remarkable persistence and ingenuity in isolation of the fungus not only from animals but from soil and other sources has added greatly to our exact knowledge of its natural habitat. This work has demonstrated that animals are not a reservoir for infection of man but that the soil is the direct source of all infections.

The dual form of *Histoplasma capsulatum* parasitic in the yeast form and saprophytic in the mycelial form adds to the interest and complexity of the infection. In the yeast form at human body temperature it is essentially an intracellular parasite multiplying like *Leishmania* mainly in reticulo endothelial cells and thus differing from other systemic fungi which multiply more often in giant cells or extracellularly. However *Histoplasma* infection differs from kala azar in producing areas of necrosis in which the yeast cells are present in enormous numbers. Although the yeast form readily reverts to the mycelial form in culture at room temperature it apparently is not a source of infection to other persons or animals. The mycelial form although requiring moisture for its development produces spores which are apparently resistant to drying and which give rise to human and animal infection mainly by inhalation of dust.

The recognition of subclinical infections led to the supposition that similar to coccidioidomycosis there were probably early cases of histoplasmosis with acute respiratory symptoms. Lung involvement as a terminal episode was first described by the writer (7) in a case of ascending renal infection but the first recognized group of cases of primary lung involvement was reported by Loosli and co-workers in members of a farm family who had cleaned out a silo. These cases recovered demonstrating that clinical infections are not always fatal. The episode also emphasized the possibility of focal epidemics.

The recognition of epidemics of acute pulmonary histoplasmosis is one of the most interesting developments in our knowledge of the disease. Several were recognized retrospectively by finding milium calcification in the lungs or by the association of the cases

region and in South America. By 1940 the writer (3) was able to publish records of 32 cases and by 1945 Parsons and Zarafonitis summarized 71 cases.

Another coincidence occurred with the appointment of Dr. Amos Christie to the professorship of Pediatrics at Vanderbilt University. With his knowledge of the epidemiology and pathology of coccidioidomycosis in California and on the advice of his former colleague Charles E. Smith, he and Peterson demonstrated a high prevalence of skin sensitivity to histoplasmin in his clinic patients, thus suggesting the presence of subclinical infections in that area.

Still another coincidence was the existence in the adjacent (Williamson) county of a long term study of the epidemiology of tuberculosis supervised by the Tennessee State Health Department under a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation. Individual and family records of practically the entire population had been accumulated and showed the baffling fact that many individuals had calcification in the lungs with negative tuberculin reactions (4). Histoplasmin skin tests showed an exceedingly high prevalence of sensitivity and led to epidemiological studies which localized *Histoplasma* infections more in damp than in dry environments (5) and pointed to the chicken coop as the most frequent source of the fungus (6).

Meanwhile the problem of lung calcifications with negative reactions to tuberculin, particularly in the midwestern states, led to the application of the histoplasmin skin test first to student nurses by Palmer and then to population groups by Furcolow and others, and thus to the mapping of the distribution of histoplasmin sensitivity in the United States. The establishment of a histoplasmosis research center by the Public Health Service in Kansas City, Kansas, in a region of high prevalence under the direction of Michael I. Furcolow, made possible intensive studies along clinical, epidemiological and immunological lines.

After DeMonbreun's cultivation of *Histoplasma capsulatum*, the fungus was frequently cultivated from human cases and DeMonbreun soon isolated it from a dog in Nashville. This raised the question of possible reservoir hosts. Emmons and his co-workers pursued this possibility and recovered the fungus from dogs, cats

tive. Christie's use of ethyl vanillate at first gave promise but has proved ineffective in some cases and has a narrow therapeutic index. The tendency for spontaneous cure of early infections and even of some disseminated cases makes it difficult to assess the effectiveness of therapeutic agents. It may be that a non-specific stimulation of resistance by a number of therapeutic agents can tip the balance in favor of the patient in a disease of low toxicity. However with the development of amphotericin B an antifungal agent has been found which if administered intravenously appears to be curative in severe disseminated and chronic progressive pulmonary histoplasmosis and appears to shorten the course of early acute pulmonary cases. The therapeutic conquest of the disease appears to be in sight.

The fact that *Histoplasma* sometimes does not stain well in tissue sections with the usual hematoxylin stain may be the reason why it was overlooked for so many years by pathologists in the United States. Even after it became recognized and was found in profusion in certain organs such as the lungs or the adrenal glands it sometimes could not be recognized in tubercle-like lesions in other organs of the same case. It also seemed to be absent from the caseous center of some larger lesions in which it was plentiful in macrophages at the periphery. This difficulty has been overcome by the application of the Fielgen reaction and the periodic Schiff stain to tissue sections bringing out in magenta color the polysaccharide capsule of the fungus even in apparently healed lesions. Even a single organism can sometimes be identified in this way. This advance is another aid in determining the presence of the infection in both man and animals.

One of the interesting features of disseminated cases of histoplasmosis is the affinity of the fungus for the adrenal glands which often become large and caseous and have occasionally been the principal or only demonstrated focus of infection. Another interesting localization is on the heart valves principally the aortic perhaps developing on an already scarred valve. The striking feature of these lesions is that this is one location where the yeast form of *Histoplasma* multiplies extracellularly in the fibrin comprising the vegetation. This makes such lesions similar in appearance to those

with the tearing down of buildings in which pigeons had nested. The re-examination of the recovered patients by x-ray and serological and skin tests established the diagnosis and the cultivation of *Histoplasma* from the environment added conviction to the evidence. The foresight of the Army and Public Health officials who originally studied some of these epidemics in preserving sera from patients which could be tested for *Histoplasma* antibodies illustrates the thoroughness with which search was made by those agencies for the etiologic diagnosis of the epidemics. In 1957 Lehman and Finkelson recorded 38 known epidemics in the United States, three in South Africa and one each in Peru and Venezuela. Doubtless the list will continue to grow rapidly.

Intensive work has been done in the past decade on the serological and immunological aspects of histoplasmosis. The development of the skin test with histoplasmin—an extract of the mycelial phase—has been followed by three types of serological test, namely complement fixation, colloidal particle agglutination, and precipitation. The permanence of the skin reaction suggests the possibility that the fungus remains antigenically active in the body for many years once it has gained entrance to the tissues. The agglutination and precipitin reactions are apparently related primarily to the early acute stages of the disease, whereas the complement fixation reaction is of longer duration. The best types of antigen for these tests are still matters of study.

Immunity in histoplasmosis is difficult to assess, but there is evidence that it occurs. It has been noted that epidemics have usually occurred either in areas outside the known highly endemic regions or among persons not native to those areas, such as military personnel. Animals can be protected by sublethal infections from heavy challenge inoculations.

The specific therapy of disseminated histoplasmosis has until recently been a story of alternating hope and disappointment. Pentavalent organic antimony compounds, so effective in kala-azar, have been associated with temporary improvement in some cases but have failed in others. Stilbamidine, also effective in kala-azar, failed in the few cases in which it was tried, and 2-hydroxystilbamidine, which is curative in blasticomycosis, also proved to be ineffec-

tive. Christie's use of ethyl vanillate at first gave promise, but has proved ineffective in some cases and has a narrow therapeutic index. The tendency for spontaneous cure of early infections and even of some disseminated cases makes it difficult to assess the effectiveness of therapeutic agents. It may be that a non-specific stimulation of resistance by a number of therapeutic agents can tip the balance in favor of the patient in a disease of low toxicity. However, with the development of amphotericin B, an antifungal agent has been found which, if administered intravenously, appears to be curative in severe disseminated and chronic progressive pulmonary histoplasmosis and appears to shorten the course of early acute pulmonary cases. The therapeutic conquest of the disease appears to be in sight.

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caused by *Candida* which is not characteristically an intracellular organism in systemic infections. This was brought out in a confusing case which occurred in an army hospital during World War II in which *Candida* was isolated in culture from the blood stream *intermortem* and from the aortic valve lesion and other organs at autopsy whereas histological sections showed extracellular yeast forms in the heart valves and intracellular forms typical of *Histoplasma* in the kidney and larynx (8).

The mass of epidemiological evidence which has been accumulated particularly by Furcolow and his associates indicates that man can become infected with the spores of *Histoplasma* from the soil not only in rural areas and especially in moist spots like chicken coops but also in urban areas such as Kansas City. Here the older parts of the city show higher prevalence but even in the newer parts infection may come from the dust blown in from the heavily seeded rural areas. Increase of infections has followed tornadoes and it is probably more than a coincidence that the highly endemic portion of the middle west is also the region most troubled by tornadoes. That the spores escape into the air of laboratories where histoplasmosis research is conducted has also been demonstrated by the conversion of negative to positive skin tests in most of the personnel of the Public Health Service laboratory in Kansas City.

These facts indicate that the prevention of human infection with *Histoplasma capsulatum* in endemic areas is practically impossible. The spots seeded with the multiplying fungus in moist soil are usually sharply localized and there is no way to tell where they are. Inhabitants of these areas can be warned to avoid inhalation of dust by wetting it down or if that is impossible by wearing a mask. Infants should be especially protected from dust because the infection is more often acutely fatal at that age. The inapparent infection caused by the inhalation of a few spores is usually a safe method of immunization and the acute respiratory infection usually terminates in healing and immunity. The circumstances leading to chronic progressive pulmonary infection with cavitation and to visceral dissemination are not well understood but they are probably similar to parallel conditions in tuberculosis. With the discovery of effective therapeutic agents and with the surgical resection

of resistant lesions fatalities from the infection should be practically eliminated if the infection is recognized in time. The development of an effective vaccine for laboratory personnel and for certain population groups with known risk of exposure will doubtless receive greater attention in the future.

The problem of differentiation of histoplasmosis from pulmonary tuberculosis has been present ever since the recognition of the first few cases and the unexplained occurrence of pulmonary calcification with negative tuberculin reactions. The finding of both fungi and acid fast bacilli in the same lungs has occurred not infrequently but many patients have been held for years in tuberculosis hospitals when they were actually suffering from histoplasmosis. With the rapidly spreading knowledge of this fact such errors should soon disappear from areas where histoplasmosis is understood by chest physicians.

A review by the World Health Organization in 1952 recorded cases of histoplasmosis from Latin America (Mexico to Argentina), Europe, North and South Africa, the East Indies and Australia. There is no doubt of its endemicity in Latin America or South Africa but skin test surveys in Europe have been almost uniformly negative and little is known about the prevalence farther east. The cases from the Philippines and Java may have been caused by a closely related fungus of which *Histoplasma farciminosus* which is prevalent in equines seems to be the most likely. Future studies will undoubtedly elucidate this situation. It is of interest that early acute pulmonary cases have recently been recognized in Panama and that the Army and the Public Health Service have started an intensive epidemiological study there. It is also of interest that the first clinical cases were recognized recently in Costa Rica and Puerto Rico.

The writer has been a fortunate observer of this fascinating infection since its resurrection from obscurity rather than a contributor to its elucidation. He has attempted in this introduction to set the stage for what is presented in this volume by the resourceful and persistent workers whom the Editor has recruited as contributors. He has had the opportunity to review some of the chapters and has borrowed from them and from the literature freely.

without listing references which are available in later chapters. Students of medical history of mycology of immunology of epidemiology of pathology of clinical medicine and of preventive medicine will profit by the reading of this volume and the volume will undoubtedly stimulate the solution of some of the still unsolved problems of histoplasmosis.

This introduction would be incomplete if it did not pay tribute to the man who first found the disease and described the causative organism. Samuel Taylor Darling was born in Harrison New Jersey on April 6 1872 of English parentage. After attending schools in Pawtucket Rhode Island he became a druggist. He entered the College of Physicians and Surgeons of Baltimore and received his medical degree in 1903 at the head of his class. After two years as instructor in histology and pathology at his alma mater and as a resident pathologist at the Baltimore City Hospital he was appointed in 1905 intern and physician at the Ancon Hospital in the Panama Canal Zone. He also acted as pathologist and in 1906 became chief of laboratories of the Isthmian Canal Commission. His alert mind set him searching for unfamiliar diseases at the autopsy table and it was in December 1905 that he encountered his first case of histoplasmosis. He was in search for Leishmanian and perhaps for that reason made smears from visible lesions and from spleen and bone marrow and applied a blood stain which immediately disclosed the parasites in good condition to study their morphology prior to the examination of fixed tissue sections. It was undoubtedly his lack of familiarity with fungi which prevented him from making his own correction of his error in classifying the parasite as a protozoan.

After his three cases of histoplasmosis encountered within a year no others were detected but his keen observations led to the discovery of two human cases of sarcocystosis *Trypanosoma hippicum* in horses and its transmission by sexual contact cutaneous leishmaniasis relapsing fever and the wide range of helminth and intestinal protozoan infections present in that region. Yellow fever was coming under control but malaria was rampant and became one of his important interests.

In 1913 and 1914 he accompanied C. G. Morgan on a mission to South

Africa to investigate the cause of the high mortality among workers in the diamond mines. In 1915 he was appointed to the staff of the International Health Board of the Rockefeller Foundation and for the next three years served as head of a commission to study the causes of anemia in the people of Malaya, Java and Fiji. This work revealed the importance of hookworm as the cause of anemia, the value of worm counts in estimating intensity of infection, and the practical value of mass treatment without prior stool examination in heavily infected population groups. This and later work also led to his calling attention to the relationship between the geographical distribution of the two species of human hookworms and the ethnic origin and migration of their hosts.

From 1918 to 1920 Darling served as professor of Hygiene and director of the laboratories of Hygiene in the Medical School of São Paulo, Brazil, which the Rockefeller Foundation was assisting. Here he established a well equipped laboratory for teaching and research and carried out extensive studies on hookworm disease.

In 1920 he was forced by illness to return to the United States and in 1921 he became a fellow by courtesy in the department of medical zoology of the School of Hygiene and Public Health of the Johns Hopkins University.

In 1922 Darling established for the Rockefeller Foundation a field laboratory at Leesburg, Georgia, for the investigation of malaria. Many young men were sent to him for field and laboratory training before proceeding to foreign countries as directors of malaria control campaigns. He also continued his research developing the spleen index in children as a tool for measuring malaria endemicity and identifying the larval and breeding places of the three common species of *Anopheles* mosquitoes in the southeastern United States, so as to concentrate on the control of the breeding places of *A. quadrimaculatus*, the malaria transmitting species.

It was here that the writer had the privilege of spending a week with Darling and his latest pupil Paul F. Russell in October 1924. Russell had nearly completed his work on the differentiation of the larvae of *A. quadrimaculatus*, *A. punctipennis* and *A. crucians*. The days were spent in the field and laboratory or conferring with famous visitors. The evenings were spent on the porch of the little

hotel with Darling reminiscing about his experiences especially during the pioneer days in the Canal Zone

On March 21 1925 Darling left the United States as a corresponding member of the malaria Commission of the Health Organization of the League of Nations to join in a malaria survey of Syria which then included Lebanon He was killed with two other members of the party in an automobile accident on a mountain road several miles from Beirut The Government of Lebanon erected a joint monument to the three victims at the sight of the accident which overlooks the Mediterranean Sea and the cape of land on which Beirut is located The writer had the privilege of paying homage to Darling at this monument in 1949

Darling was recognized during his lifetime as a world figure in tropical medicine He was the author of over 70 papers during his twenty years of research He received the honorary degree of Doctor of Science from the University of Maryland in 1923 He was president of the American Society of Tropical Medicine 1924-25 vice president of the American Society of Parasitologists 1925 and an honorary fellow of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene London The Lebanese government awarded him the Medal of Merit posthumously

Darling's professional and personal qualities are best described in the obituary note in the annual report of the International Health Board of the Rockefeller Foundation for 1925

Dr Darling possessed in eminent degree the qualities of the successful investigator—joy in the exploration of nature and the search for truth command of methods and ingenuity in technique knowledge of the literature of his subject the scientific imagination and analytic type of mind His own example his attractive personal qualities and his generosity secured the enthusiastic loyalty and devotion of his assistants and fellow workers (9)

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THE HISTORY OF HISTOPLASMOSIS

GERALD L. BAUM

In the course of the vast amount of work that has been done in the last half century in the medical sciences it has become necessary for the men who devote their efforts to this study to concentrate on the diseases that are relatively common. This is simply explained by the urgency of the work and the painful limitation of time.

In the instance of histoplasmosis for many years it was felt that the number of men afflicted with the disease was very small and consequently the work done was little. To the research man the disease was a curiosity caused by a rarely seen organism; to the clinician the whole situation was of little interest since the number of patients was minuscule and the treatment non-existent.

With abrupt suddenness the story changed pace. From the early 1940's until the present there has occurred an unbelievably rapid accumulation of knowledge about histoplasmosis since it was realized that instead of being the rare disease it was originally thought to be histoplasmosis afflicts millions of men (and women) in the endemic area and quite a few outside of it.

This work has been accomplished through the efforts of many dedicated and intelligent men who had the perception to see what at first were obscure associations and who had the courage to speak out when they were sure of themselves even in the face of well established opinions to the contrary. This is not unusual among physicians but this has happened with such dramatic speed in the case of histoplasmosis that the attention of the whole profession has been drawn to it.

In 1905 Dr. Samuel Taylor Darling went to the Ancon Canal Zone hospital as pathologist. He was 33 years old but only two years out of medical school and had qualified by examination for the appointment. Soon after arriving he was asked to perform an

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FIG. 1. Samuel Easton Darling, taken about 1910

autopsy on a negro from Martinique who had died from an overwhelming infection. The examination revealed gross lesions resembling disseminated tuberculosis but the microscopic study done so carefully by Dr. Darling yielded rather startling findings. Intracellular organisms seen in histiocytes resembled *Plasmodia* and in addition seemed to have a capsule (11).

These intracellular organisms aroused the interest of Dr. Darling because he had been directing his studies toward the finding of an American form of leishmaniasis. He had first thought that these intracellular organisms represented leishmaniasis but on close inspec-

tion he noted that no kinetoplast was visible. He therefore felt that what he had seen represented a new organism which he named *Histoplasma capsulatum* (14).

Dr Darling's observations prompted him to classify his *Histoplasma* as an animal parasite, probably because of its close resemb-



Fig. 2. Drawings of the organism *Histoplasma capsulatum* as they appeared to Darling. This plate appeared in a summary article written by Darling about the three cases of histoplasmosis that he had observed. Reprinted with permission of the publishers of the *Archives of Internal Medicine* (- 107 193 1908).

hence to Leishmaniasis. It is of interest to note that of the many observations made of the organism by Dr Darling this represented one of the few errors.

One cannot reflect on the work of Dr Darling and of the accuracy of his observations as manifested by drawings which appeared in subsequent publications (16) without being amazed. The work was carried on under almost primitive conditions at least by modern standards. Certainly the swarming jungles of Panama did not provide a stimulating atmosphere for hard work. In addition the microscopes of the day were not ones which revealed their secrets easily. The work done on histoplasmosis by Dr Darling is one of the truly fine contributions by an American research physician.

The original case observed by Dr Darling was seen in 1905. The following year Dr Darling observed two more cases (15). The second being in a Martinique Negro and the third case being in a Chinese laborer who had been in Panama for 15 years prior to his illness. All three cases reported by Darling were adults all were disseminated and all cases died.

Though it was Darling whose first report has gained recognition one must mention the work of Richard P. Strong who in 1906 reported organisms which he observed while working in the Philippine Islands which were consistent with *H. capsulatum* (66). His report preceded Dr Darling's however he later expressed the belief that the organism which he saw and described was *H. farcinulosum*. By comparison Darling's description was considerably more complete and his drawings more correct therefore he has been given the prime credit. The present author feels unqualified to decide who should receive the prior credit but it is apparent that Darling's work was the more complete and therefore deserves mention at least for that fact.

Following Darling's work and the publication which resulted from his observations nothing was seen of histoplasmosis until shortly prior to World War I. Henrique da Rocha Lima a Brazilian who spent 19 years in The Institute of Tropical Diseases in Hamburg Germany reported in 1912 the following observation. A comparison of the microorganism of Darling, with Leishmania and

tion he noted that no kinetoplast was visible. He therefore felt that what he had seen represented a new organism which he named *Histoplasma capsulatum* (14).

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Fig. 11. Drawings of the organism *Histoplasma capsulatum* as they appeared to Darling. This plate appeared in a summary article written by Darling about the three cases of histoplasmosis that he had observed. Reprinted with permission of the publishers of the *Archives of Internal Medicine* (7: 107-123, 1908).

Dr Henry I. Meleney who showed him sections of visceral leishmaniasis in Chinese hamsters. Dr Darling called attention to the similarity of this infection to histoplasmosis and demonstrated sections from his cases. This seemingly casual meeting was an opportune one as subsequent events were to prove.

In 1926 Drs William Riley and Cecil J. Watson described a case of histoplasmosis originating in a resident of Minnesota (56). This was the first case well documented since Darling's three were reported and the first case recognized in the United States. A case seen in Europe had been described as histoplasmosis by Richl in 1921 (55) but the documentation noted was not convincing.

The case described by Riley and Watson was a woman with disseminated disease who at autopsy demonstrated widespread involvement. The findings were identical with Darling's cases. It is of interest to note that Riley and Watson speculated on the occurrence of more cases in the U. S. in the following way: "As we attempted to point out the finding of an endemic case of histoplasmosis in Minnesota is evidence that it is not a purely tropical disease but that it must be considered as a possible factor in any obscure case of splenomegaly accompanied by irregular pyrexia, emaciation and anemia" (57).

In 1929 Dr Meleney then at Vanderbilt University School of Medicine received from Dr John F. Kessel of Los Angeles tissue sections from a local autopsy showing *Histoplasma* like organisms. Dr Meleney showed these to Dr Edna H. Tompkins who was studying supravital staining of blood cells. This casual exchange of information was to prove significant. In 1932 Dr Katherine Dodd was caring for a child on the Pediatric service at Vanderbilt who was suffering from an unknown type of anemia (19). Dr Dodd was aware of Dr Tompkins' interest in supravital staining of cells and she asked Dr Tompkins to use this technique on her patient. What subsequently happened is best quoted from Dr Tompkins: "Once detected supravitally by virtue of intense refractivity and droplets of dye they (*Histoplasma capsulatum*) could be demonstrated in fixed films in which they had been overlooked previously. Dr Meleney once showed me one of these sections (of a case of histoplasmosis) just because of my interest in the reticulo endothelial

with yeast showed a much greater similarity of their quality with yeast than with protozoa (13). This observation had been made by da Rocha Lima after comparing Darling's material with tissue and smears from cases of epizootic lymphangitis caused by *H. farciminosum* and *Leishmania*. This observation which was the result of exacting work has proven in subsequent years to be correct and certainly represents a significant contribution. For completeness it should be mentioned that da Rocha Lima also pointed out that Darling's observation of flagellate cell forms of *H. capsulatum* was probably an erroneous one.

In October 1924 Dr. Darling who was then in charge of the Malaria Experiment Station at Leesburg, Georgia, was visited by



Fig. 1 Henrique da Rocha Lima



Fig. 2. William A. DeMonbreun

Dr. William A. DeMonbreun, pathologist at Vanderbilt was notified of the diagnosis made by Dr. Dodd and Dr. Tompkins. The child's demise was imminent and Dr. DeMonbreun was prepared when it occurred to make cultures on a variety of media. These proved successful and *H. capsulatum* was grown. Dr. DeMonbreun after culturing the organism worked out the details of its morphology, culture and growth characteristics (17). His work was of such excellence that little has had to be added up to the present time. His studies included injecting animals and recovering the organism from the blood during life and again after the animals died. He established beyond any doubt the etiologic relationship between the



Fig 1 Katherine Dodd

system in general. That picture came back to me as I puzzled about the parasites that filled the circulating monocytes of the infant under study (61). According to Dr Tompkins Dr Meleney was in the building at the time she made her observation. She called him and he came running down the stairs, took a short look through the microscope and uttered enthusiastic corroboration of Dr Tompkins' suspicions (68). Dr Ernest Goodpasture subsequently agreed with the impressions of both Dr Tompkins and Dr Meleney.



Fig. 1. William A. DeMonbreun

Dr William A. DeMonbreun, pathologist at Vanderbilt was notified of the diagnosis made by Dr Dodd and Dr Tompkins. The child's demise was imminent and Dr DeMonbreun was prepared when it occurred to make cultures on a variety of media. These proved successful and *H. capsulatum* was grown. Dr DeMonbreun after culturing the organism worked out the details of its morphology, culture and growth characteristics (17). His work was of such excellence that little has had to be added up to the present time. His studies included injecting animals and recovering the organism from the blood during life and again after the animals died. He established beyond any doubt the etiologic relationship between the

organism which he had cultured *Histoplasma capsulatum* and the disease histoplasmosis in the experimental animals. He established the dimorphism of the organism and he described and photographed the tuberculate spores which since that time have been recognized as diagnostic of the mold phase of the organism. In addition DeMonbreun concluded that the saprophytic form of *H. capsulatum* probably existed free in nature. As can be seen the microbiological characteristics of the organism were brilliantly worked out by Dr. DeMonbreun. His only failure was in trying to change the name of the disease to cytomycosis. Despite the fact that Dr. Meleney was a strong proponent of this name it never caught on (47). DeMonbreun was only 34 years old at the time he did his work and the resulting paper which was presented in November of 1933 at the 29th annual meeting of the American Society of Tropical Medicine was a masterpiece (17).

In 1933 at a meeting of the American Association of Pathologists and Bacteriologists a few months before DeMonbreun had presented his work Dr. G. H. Hansmann and Dr. John R. Schenken presented work related to the isolation of a fungus which they considered to be *Sepedonium* (35). Review of their work revealed that this was undoubtedly the first culture of *H. capsulatum*. Their report preceded Dr. DeMonbreun's by approximately six months; however, it lacked the completeness of Dr. DeMonbreun's and has been subsequently overshadowed. However, as with Dr. Strong and Dr. Darling, one is faced with the decision of whom should receive prior credit for the cultural work. Hansmann and Schenken most certainly preceded DeMonbreun in their report, but DeMonbreun's work was considerably more complete. In all justice it would seem that the word of Schenken who has approved of the statement of Conant: "DeMonbreun, Hansmann and Schenken finally cultured the organism and proved it to be a fungus" should be taken (61).

One cannot but wonder at the rather amazing coincidence that both the original identification of the organism and the disease as well as the first culture of the organism should be accomplished almost simultaneously in two separate laboratories.

Despite the excellence of work done up to this point histoplas

miosis was still considered to be a disease of little significance in the United States. It was felt to be a rare generalized infection involving the reticulo endothelial system which was uniformly fatal (17).

Bernard *et al* reported in 1931 (2) 327 of 1 000 New York city adolescents tested were negative to tuberculin. Of these 11 (3.1%) showed fibrous and/or calcific scars in the lungs and/or hilar. In 1933 Crabtree *et al* (11) made the observation that in Sullivan county Tennessee over 1/5 of persons older than 5 years of age with pulmonary calcifications were negative to tuberculin. In 1938 both Nelson *et al* and Cass *et al* (30, 19) noted that about 40% of tuberculin negative children and young adults had pulmonary calcifications on x ray. In 1938 Dr. Michael I. Furcolow and others participated in a conference in Hagerstown Md. at which general agreement was reached that these above mentioned observations did in fact represent a true relationship between negative reactions to tuberculin and calcification in the lungs (29).

In 1939 Crimm and Short (12) reported coincidence of pulmonary calcifications and negative tuberculin reactions in Evansville Indiana. The same year Lumsden (15) on the basis of prominent coincidence of negative tuberculin reactions and pulmonary calcifications in Giles county Tennessee where the tuberculosis mortality rate was high questioned the value of the tuberculin test as an index of tuberculous infection.

In 1943 there appeared a report of observations of a large number of chest x rays made on men being inducted into the service (17). Because the number of calcifications present on chest x ray could cause rejection from military service these concretions were noted rather carefully. Review of these films yielded the interesting consistent observation that calcifications of the lung were much more frequently seen in people who came from the Mississippi Ohio River Valley area.

In 1941 a case of laryngeal histoplasmosis was reported by VanPernis *et al* (69) and what makes this of particular interest is that the authors used a filtrate of a broth mycelial phase culture of the organism isolated from the case to skin test the patient. Delayed positive reactions were noted to both undiluted and several ten fold dilutions of the material. This represented the first application

of histoplasmin as a skin test antigen in man. At about the same time use of the filtrate and a heat killed yeast vaccine as a skin antigen in animals was found effective (70).

The next crucial event was the appointment in 1943 of Dr Amos Christie as professor of pediatrics at Vanderbilt University. Dr Christie had been working with Dr Charles F. Smith prior to coming to Vanderbilt and it was through this association that he had witnessed the elucidation of the problem of coccidioidomycosis. Shortly after his arrival at Vanderbilt he was puzzled by the presence of pulmonary calcifications in persons with negative tuberculin tests. He consulted Dr. Smith about this observation and he sug-



Fig. II Amos Christie

gested that histoplasmosis might be responsible for the calcifications in the chests of people who were negative to both tuberculin and coccidioidin (61). It is rather prophetic that in a letter dated Dec 30 1919 Dr Smith should make the following comment: "I S. Old Histoplasma holds a soft spot probably because I know so little about it but DeMonbreun did do his epochal transmission studies at Vanderbilt and the status of histoplasmosis now is like that of coccidioidal granuloma before Clifford and Dickson showed mild infections occurred" (61).

The hint had been given previously by Dr DeMonbreun because in 1939 he had said: "It is probable then that the disease is more common than is generally supposed possibly because the disease may occur in a relatively mild and non fatal form and not be recognized" (18).

It must be remembered that at this point Larsons and Zaranetis (52) were preparing their classic report and review in which 71 cases of histoplasmosis were collected from 1905 to the time of writing. All of these were fatal cases and it was their opinion that this was the rule. Their work was detailed and represents the last time that histoplasmosis was referred to as a rare uniformly fatal disease.

During 1911 Christie and Dr J. C. Peterson tested approximately 180 children, internes and residents with skin test antigens. They found a high incidence of positive reactions to histoplasmin in the face of negative tuberculin tests (9). This then was the high land from which the epidemiology of histoplasmosis has been worked out.

Dr Christie communicated his information to Dr Edwards A. Park, professor of pediatrics at Johns Hopkins (61) who suggested to Christie that he discuss the matter with Dr Carroll Palmer, an officer of the U. S. Public Health Service. It was Dr Palmer's study of the skin sensitivity in student nurses which already had revealed marked geographic variations in the prevalence of pulmonary calcifications in tuberculin non reactors. Dr Palmer had suspected that spores of streptophytes were the cause of the non tuberculous pulmonary calcifications. Dr Chester W. Emmons expressed the feeling that *Histoplasma capsulatum* was the cause (61). Dr Palmer and

Dr Michael L. Lucidow visited Dr Christie in March of 1945. They were apparently fascinated with his results. Dr Palmer then obtained histoplasmin from Dr Immons and incorporated histoplasmin skin testing in his nationwide project of skin testing student nurses. In May of 1945 Dr Palmer reported the results of his work which showed enormous differences in the skin sensitivity to histoplasmin between persons living in different areas of the U. S. (50). It was then that Dr Christie's original observation was corroborated without question. There was a high degree of correlation between positive histoplasmin skin tests and pulmonary calcifications in people reacting negatively to tuberculin.

Dr Palmer's studies were done on several thousand subjects and required close cooperation of several people. Dr Charlotte Silverman and Dr Caroline Chandler did the actual skin testing and Dr Henry Zwerling reviewed all of the x-rays.

And so it was that with the reports from both Christie and Palmer the existence of a benign subclinical form of histoplasmosis was established. Almost all of the cases tested were without symptoms and have remained completely well. A few cases were reported by Christie to have shown the organism in the tissues (8). The outgrowth of Dr Palmer's work which involved a large number of persons from many different areas was the mapping out of the geographical incidence of the infection (51). The original work has been confirmed on numerous occasions subsequently.

A more recent contribution to the epidemiology of histoplasmosis was made by Dr P. Edwards who mapped the worldwide incidence of histoplasmin sensitivity. These papers established areas of endemicity in previously unsuspected regions of the world (22, 23, 48).

Before carrying the story further it seems fitting to pause and reflect on the significant place in this drama that is held by Vanderbilt University. Dr Meleney was there with the crucial information which prompted Dr Dodd, Dr Tompkins and Dr DeMonbreun to do their original work on the isolation and identification of *Histoplasma capsulatum*. The culture of *Histoplasma* originally grown by Dr DeMonbreun served as the source of histoplasmin which was used by Dr Christie some 10 years later in his skin test survey which



Fig 7 Carroll E. Palmer

established the existence of the benign form of histoplasmosis. What makes this tale most fascinating indeed is that the significant contributors continue to work and are available for comment and elucidation.

It must now become obvious that histoplasmosis had outgrown its status as a rare, uniformly fatal disease of little concern to American physicians. More and more people became interested in this disease and their combined efforts produced a rapid accumulation of facts.

In 1947 Tenenbergs developed the first of the serologic meth-

ods of diagnosis the complement fixation test (67). This gave great promise of clarifying diagnostic problems since the experience with coccidioidomycosis had pointed to the pertinence of serologic findings. Subsequent to the description of the complement fixation test two other techniques have been described: a precipitin test (59) and a collodion agglutination test (60). These tests, particularly the complement fixation test, have been useful in helping to clarify epidemics, acute primary infections and chronic cavity infections.

The important aspect of cross reactions of the serologic tests with other deep fungus diseases has been worked out in detail (6, 7).

Despite the fact that the growth characteristics of *H. capsulatum* were well known by the late 1940's, particularly that it room temperature and therefore in nature the organism must grow as a mold, there was no absolute proof that the organism did exist in nature and therefore an important fact was missing from the pattern of pathogenesis of histoplasmosis. All evidence accumulated up till this point indicated that the infection was primarily a respiratory one. Final proof that the organism does exist in nature was contributed by Dr. Chester W. Emmons, mycologist for the U. S. Public Health Service (26). It was in October, 1948, that he cultured *Histoplasma* from two soil specimens, the site being from a mound of earth at the entrance of a rat burrow under the edge of a chicken house.

The tuberculate spores which are diagnostic of the mold phase of *Histoplasma capsulatum* were actually microscopically demonstrated in the soil. Positive cultures were obtained only after 156 specimens were negative, pointing up the perseverance necessary for the successful completion of such a job.

Following Dr. Emmons' original isolation of the organism from nature, several people have cultured the organism from soil samples in various areas around the country. A very significant contribution made by Dr. Libero Ajello and Dr. L. D. Zeidberg was that *H. capsulatum* more heavily contaminates the soil around chicken houses than any other area (1). The relation of this fact to the discussion of epidemics will become apparent.

In 1939 Dr. DeMonbreun had demonstrated the first case of spontaneous histoplasmosis in a dog (18). Some ten years later Dr. Emmons demonstrated spontaneous histoplasmosis in 10 species of



FIG. 3. Chester W. Emmons.

animals including dogs and cats (21-25, 27). He suggested that animal infection was a good index of the incidence of the disease in any given region (58).

In addition to his epidemiological work with Dr. Carroll Palmer, Dr. Michael I. Furcolow has contributed greatly to the elucidation of many problems concerning histoplasmosis. In 1945 Dr. Furcolow established in Kansas City, Kansas, a field station of the U. S. Public Health Service for the study of histoplasmosis. From this center has emanated considerable information. Dr. Furcolow demonstrated *H. capsulatum* in air samples (47). He was the



Fig 8 Michael L. Furcolow

first to call attention to the chronic pulmonary cavity form of histoplasmosis and to note its confusion with tuberculosis (32). In fact in a survey in a nearby sanatorium he uncovered a surprisingly large number of cases of histoplasmosis that had been called tuberculosis for many years. Dr. Furcolow has been active in epidemiological work ever since he and Dr. Palmer did their original skin test studies. Dr. Furcolow and his colleagues have investigated many of the so-called epidemics of histoplasmosis and have analyzed them in great detail (28). He has had experience with a large number of clinical cases of histoplasmosis and has recently reported the use of new therapeutic tools (39).

The first of the epidemics occurred in soldiers at Camp Cruber Oklahoma (1-10) and since that time many interesting examples of these focal outbreaks of histoplasmosis have been reported (28). The association with soil around chicken houses and with bat and pigeon excreta has been striking. Forty epidemics have been reported involving some 950 persons. The many similarities in these various epidemics have been pointed out by Furcolow and Crayston (28). The pattern is recurrent exposure to the spore containing dust mild to severe widespread pulmonary disease followed generally by a recovery and often calcification in the pulmonary lesions. Very few deaths have been reported. A rising serologic titer during the acute phase often has been demonstrable (12-13).

In 1933 Dr. Thomas I. Puckett examined specimens of so-called tuberculomas removed from patients at the Tussummons Army Hospital. Making use of special fungus stains he demonstrated organisms which were morphologically compatible with *Histoplasma capsulatum* (33).

The genesis of histologic recognition of *H. capsulatum* has depended in great part on development of special stains. Bauer in 1939 (3) described the selective staining by Schiff's reagent of aldehyde groups released from carbohydrates by oxidation with chromic acid. In 1946 McManus (16) reported good demonstration of mucin using a similar technique but replacing the chromic acid with periodic acid. In 1946 Gomori (31) using the chromic acid oxidizing reaction replaced the Schiff's reagent with methenamine silver nitrate and obtained brilliant black staining of carbohydrates. Lillie (40) compared the effects of Bauer's Feulgen's Gram's and Crin Weigert's stains on various parasites and mentioned the selectivity of the Bauer's stain for yeast cells among them. *Histoplasma* Hotchkiss (36) in 1948 using the same technique described by McManus (46) mentioned the effective staining of chitin and demonstrated stained yeast cells by this method. In 1951 the implications of these stains in diagnosing the presence of fungi in human tissues were crystallized by Kligman *et al* (38). The Hotchkiss-McManus technique was considered superior to the Bauer's by these authors. In addition they employed a counter stain to bring out the positive



Fig 10 Thomas F Puckett

structures. By making use of both Bluer's and Hotchkiss McManus reagents and adding some original variations Gridley (33) in 1953 described a stain which proved superior to all others. In 1955 Grocott (34) applied the technique described by Gomori (31) to fungi and produced a stain considered by many the most effective fungus stain yet developed.

Dr. Puckett used the periodic acid-Schiff stain (Hotchkiss McManus) and stated his conclusion thusly: "after thorough study of a good many of the lesions I became convinced that they were due to histoplasmosis" (61). These observations by Dr.

Puckett are extremely important for they opened a new approach to the diagnosis of histoplasmosis. By using conventional stains that is hematoxylin and eosin the organism is often difficult if not impossible positively to identify especially when dead. Since culture is not only tedious and time consuming but in healed lesions often negative it is only by making use of special fungus stains that the etiology of such healed granulomatous lesions can be suspected.

In 1951 the final link in the chain of pathogenesis was forged by Dr. Manuel Straub. Dr. Straub came from Holland in that year with the intention of investigating the morphology of tuberculosis in the American Negro. His stop in Cincinnati however proved



Fig. 11. Manuel Straub

crucial and Dr. Straub revised his plans and spent the rest of his time studying the morphology of histoplasmosis. Dr. Straub had had extensive experience in tuberculosis having received his training with Ghon in Prague. In Cincinnati he investigated the lungs of more than 100 consecutive autopsies, the only selection being that the specimens come from patients who had no active pulmonary disease. In 67% of these lungs Dr. Straub was able to identify a healed primary pulmonary lesion in which could be demonstrated the organism *H. capsulatum* (65). The significance of this observation is obvious when one considers that it established the specificity of histoplasmin skin testing and proved beyond any question that histoplasmosis is in the overwhelming majority of cases a primary pulmonary disease.

Working with Dr. Straub was Dr. Jan Schwarz whose interest and work in mycology have dated from 1950. Dr. Schwarz had originally trained at the University of Prague with Ghon as did Dr. Straub. Dr. Schwarz arrived in Cincinnati in 1947 and was soon impressed with the number of splenic calcifications he noted at autopsy. This interest and curiosity prompted him to compare the incidence of splenic calcifications in Cincinnati with other parts of this country and the world and it soon became apparent that in Cincinnati the incidence of splenic calcifications was considerably higher than in the other areas checked (62). The organism *H. capsulatum* was demonstrated in the splenic foci especially those which show concentric laminations of calcifications. This contribution established the rather unusual fact that despite the benign character of the primary infection in the overwhelming majority of people it is accompanied regularly by bloodstream dissemination of the organism. In collaboration with Dr. Bernardo Serviansky, Dr. Schwarz demonstrated what had been suggested in the paper on splenic calcification that the radiologic picture of histoplasmic calcific pulmonary lesions had not only characteristic configuration but characteristic size (63).

In recent years many other interesting observations have been made such as the identification of a separate species of *Histoplasma* by Vanbreuseghem in Africa (*Histoplasma duboisii*) with its attendant large forms in human tissues (21) the demonstration that Ameri-

can strains of *H. capsulatum* can produce large forms in hamsters (20) the fractionation of antigenic substances from the yeast cell of *Histoplasma capsulatum* (2) the electron microscopic finding that the apparent capsule of *Histoplasma capsulatum* is no capsule at all but represents contraction of the organism within the tissues (54) and finally the development of chemotherapeutic agents which give great promise of being effective against histoplasmosis clinically (11-64).

Because of the rapid development of knowledge in the study of this disease much crucial and excellent work that has been done has not been mentioned here. This is merely a reflection of the limitation of space and certainly no reflection of the relative importance of the work done. These are the highlights. Seldom in the history of the study of the ills of man has so much knowledge accumulated about any one malady so rapidly. Several important problems remain to be solved among them vaccination, explanation of geographic incidence, etc. but with the results of the past 15 years as inspiration there is no question but that Aristotle's admonition "Time is a great bubble" will be rapidly fulfilled.

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MORPHOLOGICAL AND PHYSIOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF HISTOPLASMA CAPSULATUM

LEO PINE

The causal agent of the disease histoplasmosis was first observed and described by Dr S T Darling (14 15) who believed the organism to be a protozoon similar to the *Leishman Donovan* bodies of kala azar and gave the organism the generic name *Histoplasma*. The species name *capsulatum* was used presumably to describe a capsular appearing halo which surrounded the small round or egg shaped bodies of the pathogen as they were observed in stained tissue sections. Although da Rocha Lima (16) suspected the organism to be a fungus it was not until it was cultivated by DeMonbreun (17) and Hansmann and Schenken (30) that its true fungal nature was established. DeMonbreun demonstrated the diphasic nature of the fungus by incubating fresh pieces of tissue at two different temperatures upon several media. The yeast phase which is the phase observed in the tissues was obtained in an infusion broth incubated at 37 C whereas numerous white cottony colonies were obtained on Sabouraud's and dextrose agar slants incubated at room temperature. Subsequently the cultural characteristics morphology and life cycle were described by DeMonbreun (17 18) Moore (47 48) Conant (10) Negroni (50 51) and Howell (32). Since no sexual state was established for the organism it was placed in the Fungi Imperfecti as a member of the family Moniliaceae (10). The life cycle of the fungus and its various structures and forms are diagrammatically depicted in Figure 1.

THE MYCELIAL PHASE

Cultural Characteristics of the Mycelial Phase For primary isolation from clinical materials the use of whole blood containing media will give the greatest number of positive cultures when the

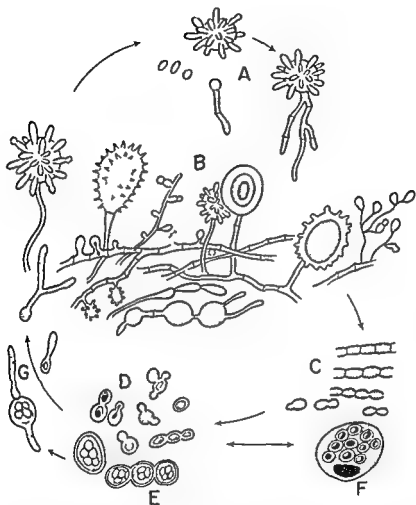


Fig 1 Diagrammatic representation of the life cycle of *Histoplasma capsulatum*. A Tuberculate macroconidium and smooth microconidia in the process of germination. B Various morphological forms of microconidia, microconidia, chlamydospores and hyphal elements commonly observed in cultures of *H. capsulatum*. C Conversion of a hyphal fragment to yeast cells by the formation of moniliiform chains. D Actively growing yeast cells. E Giant yeast cells found in old cultures. F Appearance of yeast phase in tissue. G Conversion of yeast cells to mycelial phase.

cultures are incubated at 25 to 30°C (35-38-80). However the rate of growth of the mycelial phase on whole blood containing media is slower than on media without blood and the presence of blood inhibits the normal mycelial development of the fungus (Fig. 2). When mycelial elements are transferred to media such as the Francis medium or brain heart infusion agar with blood and incubated at room temperature small white closely adhering colonies appear. These gradually increase in size, become raised in the center and remain tightly embedded in the agar at the periphery of the colony. The colonies gradually darken, become pink to tan in color, assume a fuzzy verrucose appearance in the center and reach a diameter of approximately 6 to 8 mm in 14-21 days (Fig. 2).

At 37°C the organism grows (if the strain does not convert to the yeast phase) as small cream colored glistening bacterial like colonies which are round, convex, hard and extremely adherent to the agar and with the complete absence of aerial mycelium. As a colony increases in size it gradually assumes the color of the medium becoming dark brown with the character of the colony changing little. In some cases the colony will become raised, membranous, cerebriform and will crumble easily when touched with an inoculating needle (Fig. 2). Growth at 37°C is slower than at room temperature. Also on blood media at 37°C sporulation and aerial growth of the mycelium are inhibited. To promote sporulation it is necessary to make transfers to potato dextrose agar or Sabouraud's glucose agar and incubate the culture at 25 to 30°C (35).

When mycelial fragments are streaked over Sabouraud's glucose agar small white cottony colonies develop which increase in size at a rate which will invariably cover the slant within 14 days. At the time maximum growth is reached the central portions and upper drier parts of the culture assume a yellow to buff color which slowly turns to tan or dark brown. Gradually the entire culture will become brown in color and will take on a drier, more fragile, if not powdery appearance. Usually, but not always, sporulation is associated with the tan coloration and aging of the culture. Although growth in Sabouraud's glucose agar is greatly inhibited at 37°C, some strains appear to adapt to the higher temperature after several passages (33-34). Coremia may be observed on infusion



Fig 11 Growth of mycelial phase on Sabouraud's glucose agar and Francis blood agar slants. A One month old streak culture on Sabouraud's agar at 25°C B Seven day old colony on Sabouraud's agar at 25°C C Seven day old culture on Francis medium at 25°C D Fourteen day old culture on Francis medium at 37°C

tomato juice and brain veal agars at the higher temperatures (38-76). The colonial characteristics of *H. capsulatum* on other media such as potato dextrose agar, corn meal agar, malt agar, and nutrient dextrose agar will be essentially the same as that obtained on Sabouraud's glucose agar (18, 50, 17). Although continued use in

various laboratories has established the adequacy of Sabouraud's glucose agar for maintaining mycelial phase growth of *H. capsulatum*. certain inadequacies of the medium are recognized. This medium is not the best medium for growth of small inocula. Continued passage of stock cultures upon this medium invariably results in the loss of sporulation although some strains may be rejuvenated by transfer to a different medium. In addition the medium is not selective and will support growth of other fungi to the disadvantage of *H. capsulatum* (27).

Morphology of the Mycelial Phase In general the mycelium varies from 1.5μ in diameter is usually refractile branched and multicellular with each cell having one or more nuclei (50-48-32). When the mycelium becomes older its protoplasm is displaced toward the walls and vacuoles and oil globules are seen in the central portions of the cells. At this time the walls thicken and a few cells may develop into peculiar swellings of assorted shapes and sizes which in some cases reach diameter as great as 15μ . Racquet hyphae and occasionally coiled hyphae and nodular bodies may be formed while intercalary chlamydospores single and in chains and ranging from 5 to 8μ in diameter may be found in most cultures. As the hyphae spread in radiating fashion from the center of a colony parallel hyphae lying at the periphery may be observed to undergo numerous anastomoses (Fig. 3). These hyphal fusions do not result in the apparent formation of any specialized structures.

Within 7 to 10 days after growth commences but dependent upon the medium conditions and strains sporulation begins. These spores recognized as being aleurospores (32) are of two types macroconidia and microconidia. The macroconidia are typically large tuberculate spherical to pyriform spores ranging from 10 to 25μ in diameter. They are formed in the aerial portions of the mycelium generally at the end of short pedicels but may be sessile or formed at the end of long hyphae. The tubercles may be 1 or 5 to 8μ in length (10-32-48-50) (Fig. 1). It is this tuberculate spore which serves to identify the fungus as *H. capsulatum*.

As described by Howell (32) the large aerial spores begin their development as bulbous enlargements on the ends of lateral branches. These branches may be simple with a single spore on the

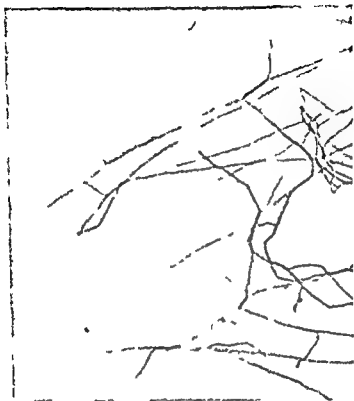


FIG. 3. Anastomosis of hyphal elements (H 15 stain—100 \times)

end or divide into two to several short branches having a single spore on the end of each branch or one to several produced acropetally and directly on a short branch. As these spore initials increase in size they cut off from the rest of the hyphae by a cross wall near the base, become spherical to pyriform in shape, and the walls gradually increase in thickness.

The character of the spore wall varies greatly and is dependent upon the strain examined, the medium used, or the part of the mycelium in which it is produced, i.e. aerial or submerged. In addition to tuberculate and smooth microconidia, there are forms having only several large bulbous or convoluted swellings or numerous spiny or warty projections (48, 32, 50) (Fig. 4). The prepon-

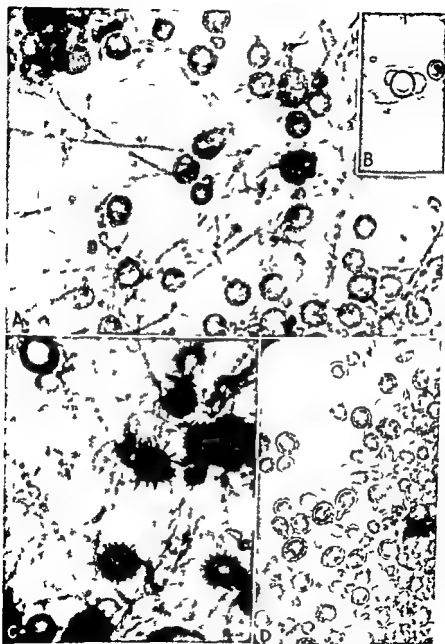


Fig 4 Macroconidia of four strains of *Histoplasma capsulatum* \ Round and pyriform verrucose macroconidia (Lactophenol cotton blue-1000x)

⇒→

derance of smooth walled macroconidia has been noted deep in the mycelial mat next to or imbedded in the agar (32, 18, 50). Certain spores formed in these regions present a halo of substance surrounding the body of the macroconidium and have been called nymbospores (52).

The exact structure and chemical nature of the projections are not as yet clearly defined. Negroni (50) believed the walls of the spores and the mycelium to be composed of callose although Nielson and Evans (52) did not find callose or cellulose in the sheath of the recent nymbospore. Delve Schiette diagrams of the mycelium and various phases of the fungus have shown the walls to be composed of chitin. There is no evidence of cellulose or any highly polymeric substance in the membranes (6). Moore (19) believed the projections to be devoid of protoplasm whereas Dowding (19) has described them as hollow extensions containing cell cytoplasm. In view of the homogeneity of staining obtained with alkaliine methylene blue, cotton blue and periodic acid Schiff stains and the variety of forms of the projections exhibited by the same strain in a given culture and effect of different media on these forms it would appear that the tubercles of the macroconidium are formed by the excretion of a metabolic product through pores in the cell wall of the spore. The macroconidia themselves become filled with fat globules which may appear to be endospores but whose composition is readily recognized when adequate fat stains are used.

Germination of the macroconidium may be induced under different conditions depending upon the strain (33). It may take place readily by simple inoculation into broth media (32) or may be induced by drying on cover slips for four to six days at room temperature and then inverted onto agar media (17). Negroni (50) succeeded in inducing germination only when he soaked spores in solutions of trypsin or papain for 24 hours at 37° C. germination was observed after 16 days. Germination occurs with the formation of

I. Smooth walled and single macroconidia. (Lactophenol cotton blue—1000 \times). C. Macroconidia with long and short clavate tubercle. Note equal sized smooth macroconidia. (P & S stain—1000 \times). D. Spiny round and pyriform macroconidia. Note large and virtually solid mass of spores. (Lactophenol cotton blue—1000 \times).

a single hypha which may branch immediately or which may continue a short distance prior to branching. Large swollen bodies may form at the end of the germ tube and these may again produce hyphae. As many as three germ tubes have been seen to originate from one microconidium and these always arose from the same pole (32). Once formed the germ tubes grow rapidly, form cross walls, become vacuolate and spores develop in the culture within several days.

The microconidia are in general smooth walled spores, spherical, pyriform or even cigar shaped, being 2.6μ in diameter, sessile on short stalks or produced terminally or in dense clusters on extremely fine hyphae, the latter being less than a micron in diameter (Fig. 5). Some may be double celled or have buds, such conidia are capable of producing one or more secondary microconidia (19, 20). Upon closer examination one can often observe in a culture a small number of microconidial forms which duplicate the morphological characteristics of the various forms of microconidia with the exception of size (Fig. 5).

According to Nelson (50) a microconidium has but one nucleus. During the formation of the microconidium a nucleus of the mycelial element from which the spore originates stretches and penetrates the spore initial. The nucleus then divides, one half remaining in the hyphal cell, the other half going to the microconidium. The nucleus is small and has an eccentric nucleolus which may be demonstrated with an iron hematoxylin stain. A nuclear membrane is present but no chromosomes were observed. The large tuberculated spore has not been studied.

It is emphasized that sporulation by *Histoplasma capsulatum* is dependent upon the strain of the organism, upon the medium on which it grows and upon the environmental conditions of the culture. Some strains will sporulate so heavily forming nothing but well defined large microconidia, that at the time of maximum sporulation the mycelium appears to constitute but a small fraction of the total vegetation (Fig. 4). Other strains will form great numbers of microconidia and few if any macroconidia. In many strains there is a size and morphological differentiation between microconidium and macroconidium. In other strains however the gradation

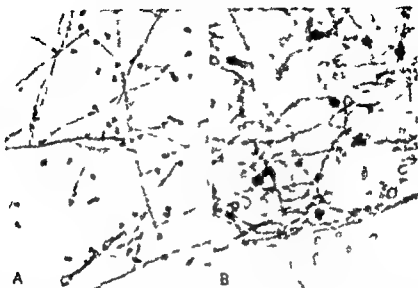


Fig. 5. Microconidia of *Histoplasma capsulatum*. A. Cross appearance of microconidia (LVS stain—100x). B. Various forms of microconidia. Note tuberculate septate spores and verrucose forms (PAS stain—1000x).

of size of the spores progresses so smoothly from macroconidium to microconidium that no real distinction can be made between the two forms. It would appear that in these latter strains the microconidium is but an immature macroconidium (12, 10). A strain which in its form tuberculate spores on one medium may form smooth spores on a second medium.

In general, however, it is the small spore which predominates. Corad and Furcolow (12) observed that the vast majority of the spores of 14 strains were less than 5μ in diameter. Similar results were obtained with five of these same strains by Helmbrecht and Larsh (11). These results are consistent with a theory of airborne infections in histoplasmosis since particles greater than 5μ rarely reach the alveoli (8).

From a diagnostic standpoint it is particularly fortunate that virtually all of the strains form the characteristic macroconidium on primary isolation from clinical material. However, few of the specific factors responsible for the loss of sporulation on continued

cultivation in the laboratory are known. The addition of whole blood and temperatures greater than 32°C inhibit sporulation (33). The effect of a relatively high temperature may be due to its inhibition of growth. Similarly, the fact that some strains sporulate better at pHs ranging from 6.5 to 7.5 may be correlated with greater growth of the fungus at these pHs (34). However, better sporulation is not always a result of better growth. Negroni (50) has shown that sporulation may be greatly affected by the carbohydrate or nitrogen of the medium. For example, in a glucose medium source asparagine supported best growth (+++) at room temperatures but only microconidia formation. KNO_3 gave less growth (+) and many smooth and rough microconidia with microconidia. $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ gave (+) growth with only smooth microconidia and microconidia and when no nitrogen source was added he found abundant microconidia and a few smooth microconidia with (+) growth.

Subsequent to the demonstration by Finmons (26) of the natural occurrence of microconidia in the soil, investigations by other workers have shown the relative high occurrence of Histoplasma in soils associated with chickens (82). The chickens themselves are free of the disease. Unfortunately, analyses of certain of the physical and chemical characters of such soils did not reveal any marked difference between soils containing Histoplasma and soil from which the fungus could not be isolated (83). The factors stimulating growth and sporulation in such soils are as yet unknown.

The spore is resistant to drying and will remain viable in dry soil for as long as four years (58). They are resistant to a temperature of 15°C for 30 minutes (17, 50). Other strains suspended in milk were resistant to temperatures of 62 to 63°C for 10 minutes (1). Kao and Schwarz (36) tested 7 strains for their resistance to heat. All strains were killed at a temperature of 50°C for 1 hour or at a temperature of 60°C for 5 minutes. There was no correlation of pathogenicity with relative heat resistance. The spores will survive as long as 600 days in water at 4°C but rapidly undergo a decrease in viability as the temperature is increased to 37°C at which the maximum survival time was 62 days in tap water (11, 60). Spores exposed to 1/1000 or 2/1000 formaldehyde for 24 hours did not survive whereas occasional spores survived these dilutions of phenol (50).

However viability of the spore is a function of the medium used for determination of colony counts. Grayston *et al* (28) obtained 15% viable spores when the spores were plated on corn meal agar, 29% on Sabouraud's agar and 12% on blood agar. Larsh *et al* (10) used four strains of *Histoplasma* which had 11 to 80% viability of their spores as measured by colony counts. In mice however all strains produced 100% infections even though small numbers of spores were used. Ajello and Runyon (1) obtained infection with 91 and 100% of the single tuberculate spores which they introduced into the abdomen of mice.

In general the mycelial phase of the organism is not found in the tissues. However on one occasion Haley (29) observed hyphae and tuberculated macroconidia in sections of a necrotic lesion of the liver of a mouse which had been inoculated with the vegetative phase. The lesion had erupted through the capsule of the liver. Binford (5) points out that mycelial elements occur in the sites exposed to body fluids and those sites most distant from viable tissue (fig. 10). Usually the mycelial and swollen forms are found in tissues occurring in old necrotic lesions. In two cases with vascular lesions exuberant mycelial growth occurred on or near the surface of the thrombus (6).

Physiology of the Mycelial Phase The optimum pH found for growth of the mycelial phase on a synthetic medium was approximately pH 6.5 (33). At pH 5.5 to 6.5 considerable aerial mycelium and macroconidia were formed on this medium whereas at pH 7.7 to 8.6 there was little or no aerial mycelium and sporulation was negligible. At 37°C on Sabouraud's broth the optimal growth of 5 strains occurred at pH 6.8 to 6.9 (13). The optimum temperature for growth ranges from 25 to 30°C and temperatures greater than 32°C are usually inhibitory (33). Based on optical density measurements a generation time of approximately 12 hours has been obtained at 25°C on shake culture (56). A high humidity is recognized as usually being beneficial on agar media. A 100% humidity was required to obtain mycelial growth on elm bark at 20 to 25°C while no growth was obtained at these temperatures at 98% humidity (45). The organism is a strict aerobe and growth will be greatly inhibited by merely stoppering the culture tube with rubber

stoppers or by growing it beneath the agar surface (17)

The fungus will grow very well on a variety of synthetic media or media containing gross plant or animal extracts. To date few vitamins have been observed necessary for growth. Area Icao and Cury (2) found one strain of three which required thiamin for growth. Scheff (68) obtained no growth on the second transfer in the absence of thiamin and reduced growth in the absence of riboflavin biotin inositol niacin or pantothenate. Salvin (66) found a single strain of six tested which required biotin for maximum growth when alanine was the only nitrogen source. However Pine (66) observed no diminished growth when the mycelial forms of 12 strains were grown in the single or combined absence of vitamins.

Salvin (66) found no single amino acid was required for growth. Furthermore the six strains tested grew well on asparagin acetamid and glucosamine as sources of nitrogen. In addition to some of these nitrogen sources Negroni (51) previously had reported good growth on histidine cystine urea and peptone with histidine and peptone supporting the best growth. The earlier results of Negroni regarding the effect of nitrogen source on sporulation have been mentioned above.

Of the carbohydrate sources glucose is perhaps the substrate of choice. Negroni (51) found excellent growth on glucose galactose mannose and mannitol with one strain and less growth on maltose lactose raffinose trehalose dextrin sorbitol inulin sodium oxalate sodium tartrate and sodium citrate. Sodium acetate did not support growth. Scheff (68) obtained the following dry weights of mycelium with various sugars: glucose—164 mg maltose—387 mg galactose—55 mg lactose—183 mg sucrose—205 mg and starch—70 mg. Furthermore only when glucose was used as a substrate did he observe acid formation. Using 3% solutions of the various sugars in Durham tubes Negroni (50) observed no acid or gas formation with glucose galactose fructose mannose lactose maltose sucrose raffinose inulin or starch. However Howell (34) has observed acid formation from glucose sufficient to lower the pH from 6.5 to 3.8. The final pH formed was found to be a function of the amino acid to sugar ratio: the smaller the ratio the less the drop in pH. The results indicate utilization of the amino acids for

growth and energy with the subsequent release of ammonia. Scheff (68) found that the fungus reduced the amide nitrogen of aspartic acid slowly at first and more rapidly later. The amino nitrogen fraction of the molecule was also released. Growth was stimulated by succinic and fumaric acids with fumarate being the better of the two. Stimulation in the presence of glucose was merely additive. Pine and Perneck (57) observed stimulation of mycelial growth with alpha-ketoglutaric acid and inhibition of mycelial growth by citric. The inhibition by citrate was apparently due to chelation of essential metals since the addition of calcium or magnesium salts reversed this defect.

The mycelial phase liquefies gelatin very slowly if at all, does not attack cellulose, does not hydrolyze albumin, has no action on milk, does not form hydrogen sulfide, acetoin, or indole, but does reduce nitrites to amines and hydrolyzes fats (50). Starch is not hydrolyzed.

It is seen that little is known regarding the metabolism and metabolic pathways of the mycelial stage. However, from the information on hand it would appear that this phase of the organism has little proteolytic activity and that its primary source of energy for growth comes from the oxidation of sugars or dicarboxylic acids, although free amino acids may also be used. Although it is agreed that the mycelial phase is readily grown at 25° C on a variety of media with relatively few nutritional requirements, the need for additional growth factors at 37° C is strongly indicated (15, 70, 71). However, generalizations should be limited for each strain has its own peculiar characteristics regarding its sporulation, nutritional requirements, responses to temperature and other environmental conditions.

Conversion of the Mycelial Phase to the Yeast Phase. When DeMonbreun first isolated *H. capsulatum* he observed that both mycelial and yeast phase elements grew in the infusion broth inoculated with the clinical material (17). If the yeast phase was then transferred from the broth to blood serum tubes and maintained at 37° C, it would grow and could be maintained in the absence of the mycelial phase. However, to convert pure mycelial stock cultures to the yeast phase it was necessary for DeMonbreun to inoculate

animals and again isolate the yeast phase on blood agar plates at 37°C. Negroni (50) in attempting to stimulate germination of the macroconidium soaked the spores in sodium hydroxide and sodium borate solutions. He observed that when his suspension was treated with 0.5% sodium borate for 24 hours at 37°C then washed to remove the excess borate and transferred to blood agar yeast cells were formed after 12 days at 37°C. Conant (10) reported conversion of the mycelial phase to the yeast phase *in vitro* by streaking the mycelium on blood agar slants incubated at 37°C with paraffin seals. Conversion occurred in 7 to 10 days. Campbell (9) described the conversion to yeast phase by transferring every two to three days on paraffin sealed tubes of the Francis glucose cystine blood agar medium. The cystine was apparently the additional factor responsible for the increased ease of conversion. Thereafter, other investigators reported various procedures or media for obtaining conversion to the yeast phase (39-41, 58-75). Tittsworth and Grunberg (75) were the first to recognize the value of an inspissated egg starch medium for conversion of mycelial phase to yeast phase. Using their medium they were able to convert 23 strains to yeast phase in one or two transfers. Because of its ease of preparation the Kurung Yegorin medium (39) is perhaps the most useful of the conversion media. This medium will generally give pure yeast phase after several transfers at 37°C and is an excellent maintenance medium. A small amount of nutrient broth may be added to moisten the slant and to stimulate yeast phase growth. Larsh *et al* (41) described the successful conversion and maintenance of Histoplasma in HeLa cell tissue cultures.

The factors involved in inducing the conversion of the mycelium to the yeast phase in living tissues are not known. Although conversion of the yeast phase to mycelial phase will occur very readily by merely transferring the yeast to a non blood medium at 25°C conversion *in vitro* from mycelial phase to yeast phase is still induced with great difficulty. Some strains will resist all efforts to obtain such a conversion. Inoculation into a susceptible animal however is virtually always a successful method of obtaining the yeast phase (10).

Recently some of the factors involved in converting the my

celial phase to the yeast phase were investigated (38). Satisfaction of yeast phase growth requirements is not sufficient in itself to induce conversion. For example, a blood medium which supports a good rate of growth of yeast phase may fail completely to induce conversion. Continued transfer of the mycelial phase of such a strain at 37 C merely promotes better mycelial growth at this temperature. On the other hand, the inspissated egg starch medium may stimulate conversion of mycelial phase to the yeast phase even though the rate of growth of the yeast phase is slower and more atypical on this medium than on blood agar media (38, 22). A temperature of 37 C is generally assumed to stimulate conversion to the yeast phase by inhibiting the growth of the mycelium. However, Myers and Sherwood (19) have reported conversion to the yeast phase in a tree frog mounted at 25 C. Pine and Percock (34) obtained conversion with some strains at 30 C *in vitro*. In addition, chelating agents such as citric acid, glycyl-L-cysteine, or versene stimulated conversion of the mycelial phase to the yeast phase. If calcium ions were added to the medium the citrate effect could be reversed and good mycelial growth would occur at 37 C while the addition of magnesium or zinc ions stimulated the conversion to and growth of the yeast phase of several strains. Even though the effects of a temperature of 37 C and chelation of metal ions by serum albumin, citrate, and other body substances might be visualized as occurring in the animal body, it is probable that other factors more important than these are responsible for limiting mycelial growth in the animal and in stimulating conversion to the yeast phase.

The morphological sequence of events which lead to the formation of yeast phase in tissue have not been clearly elucidated (46). In general, subsequent to the introduction of the mycelial elements into the animal, one observes only pure yeast phase in the tissues. Sometimes the ungerminated macroconidia or mycelial elements may be found at the site of the inoculation (16) but mycelial growth itself occurs rarely and usually under the specific conditions described by Binford (5). However, *in vitro* the cells of the hyphae may undergo the series of morphological changes to form yeast-like cells as depicted in Figure 1. The individual cells swell in the center but remain constricted at the cross walls until moniliform chains

are formed. These fragment easily forming individual oblong yeast like cells which then bud usually at either pole but occasionally from non polar areas. Dowding (19, 20) has observed the formation of yeast cells from the various mycelial elements. At 37°C the microconidium was seen to enlarge and form a thin walled yeast cell with granular contents. Although the formation of yeast cells from the tubercles of the macroconidia was also reported this has not been confirmed. It appears therefore that the yeast cell may also be formed by budding of the hyphal cells or microconidia or by germination of the spores with the formation of short germ tubes. The latter form the yeast cell by direct budding or from moniliform hyphae.

THE YEAST PHASE

Cultural Characteristics of the Yeast Phase - Of the various media which have been described for the yeast phase (9, 65, 67, 75, 81, 39, 42, 7, 58) those media containing whole blood are recognized as being of the greatest general laboratory value. For this reason the factors responsible for good yeast growth on blood agar media should be noted.

DeMonbreun (17) observed that drying of the medium caused many yeast colonies to revert to the mycelial phase and that a high degree of moisture maintained by sealing the tubes with paraffin could prevent this. However with a fresh 1.5% agar medium sufficient moisture is present and it is not necessary to seal the tubes if the incubation periods are to be of approximately one week duration. A temperature of 37°C is essential since lower temperatures stimulate conversion to the mycelial phase.

The value of cystine in blood media was indicated by the observation of Campbell (9) and supported by the work of Salvin (66) although good growth of the yeast phase on a blood agar medium may be obtained in the absence of added cystine (12).

DeMonbreun also emphasized the need for small amounts of serum to initiate yeast phase growth in infusion broth at 37°C. Subsequently useful laboratory media containing albumin or serum have been described by Zirafoletis (81) and Bonorden (7).

By fractionating the components of whole blood McVickar (41) observed that serum albumin removed toxic factors in agar media which inhibited the growth of the yeast phase. Pine (54, 55) presented evidence that albumin maintained non toxic concentrations of long chain fatty acids which were also required for growth of small numbers of yeast cells.

The whole viable red cell was found to be required for the maximum beneficial effect of a blood medium. Plasma by itself gave only 10% of the total stimulation of whole blood, washed red cells 52% and the reconstituted blood gave 93% of the activity of the whole blood. Whole blood heated for 15 minutes at 100 C did not support growth of the yeast cell and the addition of lysed red cells had only 21% of the activity of whole blood in the presence of serum (55). However as discussed earlier even in the presence of whole blood colony counts obtained with a small number of yeast cells incubated at 37 C will generally be substantially less than those obtained at 25 C (35, 38, 55, 80).

In general the use of the Francis blood glucose cystine medium prepared as described by Rowley *et al* (61) will support satisfactory growth of yeast cultures at 37 C. However several lots of the beef heart infusion base should be tested if the medium prepared does not give the desired results. Some lots of commercial or freshly prepared base are strongly inhibitory to the growth of the yeast phase and the growth obtained will be cerebriform, wrinkled or granular with a substantial amount of mycelial phase present. Similarly blood which is black with age, partially lysed or which has preservatives should not be used. Blood which is defibrinated or citrated is satisfactory. Of many media tested Lutzman (32) found that a liver spleen extract medium with whole blood supported the best growth and development of colonies from small numbers of yeast cells.

When transferred to freshly prepared blood glucose cystine agar slants and incubated at 37 C the yeast phase growth will appear on the second or third day as white or cream colored, round, convex colonies. These gradually increase in size and coalesce forming a moist, raised, butyrous growth whose surface may be rough to granular or very mucoid (Fig. 6). Maximum growth is reached

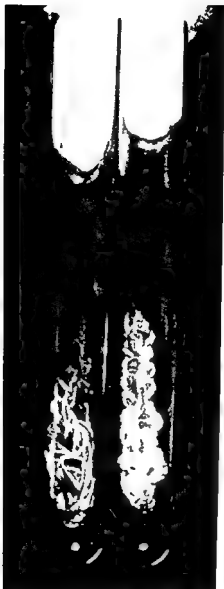


Fig II Yeast phase of *Histoplasma capsulatum* Two types of yeast phase growth obtained by different strains of *H. capsulatum* incubated on Francis medium for 5 days at 37 C

on the seventh or eighth day. Subsequently the culture becomes darker, assuming the red brown or chocolate color of the medium. On a blood medium which supports good growth of the yeast phase frequent transfers need not be made to maintain stock cultures. Instead the cultures may be incubated at 37° C for a sufficient time to allow heavy but not maximal growth and then transferred to a 5° C refrigerator where they may be stored for as long as a month without loss of viability or change in phase.

Similarly one may use the Kurung and Legian (39) (or Tinsworth and Crunberg (70)) inspissated egg and starch medium for maintenance of stock yeast cultures. 0.5 ml of nutrient broth is added to maintain moisture and yeast phase growth occurs within 5 to 9 days, usually just above the fluid line. When stored at 1° C on this medium the yeast was found to be viable after 9 months while those stored at room temperatures were viable at 3 months at which time they were discarded. In addition this medium may be used to convert the mycelial phase to the yeast phase. In some cases several transfers may be required to obtain yeast phase growth devoid of mycelial elements.

Morphology of the Yeast Phase. The yeast phase cells of young cultures are oval bodies which are approximately 1.5 to 2.0 μ by 3.0 to 3.5 μ (Fig. 7). In actively growing cultures one pole of the cell is pointed; buds may be formed at either pole and in some cases bud formation is apolar. As many as three buds may be formed simultaneously from a single mother cell. The cells usually appear round or oval but elongated forms, swollen forms, and dumbbell shaped cells are not unusual. Cells have a fine cell wall within which small refractile oil droplets may be observed with one or more granules in active Brownian movement. In preparations stained supravitaly with dilute methylene blue the protoplasmic granules stain very intensely revealing one or more vacuoles. In stained preparations the nuclei of the cells usually appear as peripheral crescent shaped masses (17). The single nucleus of a budding cell approximates itself near the bud, constricts and divides with one half going to the daughter cell (10). A halo about the cells may appear to be capsular substance but dilute India ink preparations or Hiss capsule stained preparations do not reveal a true capsule (10). Lignin and Bild



Fig 7 Yeast phase of *Histoplasma capsulatum* from blood agar slant
(Methylene blue vital stain—1000x)

ridge (37) using the electron microscope were unable to demonstrate the presence of a capsule *in vitro* or *in tissues*. Ribi and Salvin (59) also were unable to find any electronmicroscopic evidence for the presence of a capsule on cultured cells although their methods allowed easy detection of the capsule of *Cryptococcus neoformans*. In cultures which are a week or more old large swollen forms may be observed which are from 2 to 3 times the size of actively growing forms and which possess a thick wall and one or more large internal globules of fat. These forms are resistant to drying and may remain viable for as long as two months at room temperature. They will

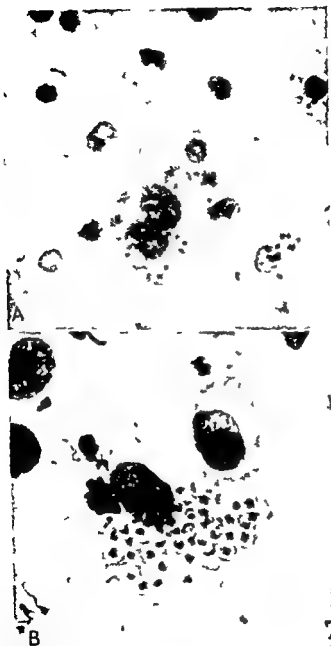


Fig 11 Yeast phase of *Histoplasma capsulatum* from impression smear of spleen (A Wright stain—1000 \times B Wright stain—1800 \times)



Fig 7 Yeast phase of *Histoplasma capsulatum* from blood agar slant
(Methylene blue vital stain—1000x)

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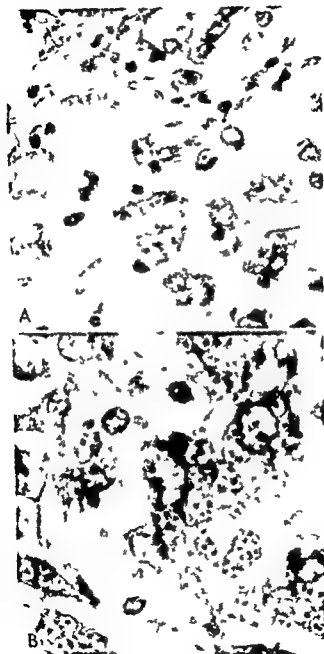


Fig. 2. Yeast phase of *Histoplasma capsulatum* in lymph node (A PAS stain—1000x B 1800x)

withstand a temperature of 45°C for thirty minutes but are killed when subjected to 55°C for this period of time (17)

Yeast cells observed in tissues are somewhat smaller in size than those observed in culture. Depending on the strain the tissue forms are from 1 to 4 μ in diameter and are surrounded by a definite halo suggestive of a capsule. In light of the results of Kligman and Baldrige (37) and Ribou and Salvin (59) this capsule is considered to be an artifact resulting from the shrinkage of the protoplasm within the yeast cell wall (5). When stained with Giemsa or Wright's stain a pale light blue ring surrounds the darker blue of the cell protoplasm (Fig. 8). The violet chromatin material appears as an oval half moon or crescent shaped mass within the center. With the hematoxylin eosin stain usually only the granular appearance of the central protoplasmic mass is observed within the halo and internal structure is not observed. Stained with the periodic acid Schiff stain the cells appear as round or oval cells with extremely fine and delicate cell walls (Fig. 9). The cell wall takes a light pink or purple stain. Within the cell the central protoplasm appears as a solid or finely outlined mass which duplicates the external shape of the organisms. Within the protoplasm heavier staining material may appear as an eccentric hemispherical oval or crescent shaped violet or purple body. Although budding is rarely observed with the above stains it is more easily observed when the Gomori modification of the silver nitrate methenamine stain is used (3). With this stain the purple black to black outline of the fungus wall stands out in strong relief against the black, round tissue and duplicates the morphology of the cultured yeast phase.

Larger forms of the fungus described by DeMonbreun in old cultures have also been found extracellularly in old necrotic tissue (5) (Fig. 10). They stain poorly if at all with hematoxylin and eosin but will stain well with the periodic acid Schiff and the Cridley stains. Although they reach the size of 15 to 20 μ in diameter little internal structure is seen with any of the stains. Schwarz (73) observed such large forms in tissue which had been incubated at 37°C on blood agar plates.

Large forms of the yeast phase have been noted in culture since DeMonbreun isolated the organism and in general laboratory dis-

many yeast forms larger than those observed with *H. capsulatum*. Subsequently the number of duboisii forms increased until at two months after inoculation this form predominate. Subsequent conversion of the mycelium to yeast phase on the Kuring and Legian medium showed that in general the yeast cells of *H. duboisii* were larger than those of *H. capsulatum* with many forms 13 to 15 μ in diameter (20).

Of the various criteria (78-79) used to distinguish *H. duboisii* as an entity separate from *H. capsulatum* two appear to be of most value. First the duboisii form is reported to be primarily intracellular and not restricted to necrotic areas as reported by Binford (5) for some large forms of *H. capsulatum*. Secondly the large duboisii form is the only recognized parasitic form in man and is also the only one to be found in animals some weeks after inoculation. In addition there appears to be a definite morphological difference between the large irregular forms of *H. capsulatum* found in tissue and those of *H. duboisii*. Drouhet and Schwarz (21) were unable to separate *H. duboisii* and *H. capsulatum* following studies of morphology and virulence in mice and hamsters or by gross appearance rate of growth or pigmentation on various media (22). Later the results of histological studies done on mice and hamsters experimentally infected with a strain of *H. duboisii* were in agreement with the results of Vanbreuseghem (77) and the organism could be differentiated from American strains of *Histoplasma* on the basis of its virulence and morphology in tissues (Fig. 11). The fact that 15 known or potentially recognizable cases of African histoplasmosis have occurred (77) emphasizes the importance of *H. duboisii* as a possible new species (49-71).

Physiology of the Yeast Phase Growth of the yeast phase is strictly aerobic (17-51) and in a liquid medium the rate and amount of growth in static tubes is much less than that obtained in shake tubes using the same medium. In liquid shake tubes the generation time may range from 9 to 11 hours under optimal conditions (58) while on blood agar media the generation time varies from 6 to 8 hours (62-55). Rowley and Huber (63) inoculated mice with non-lethal doses of the yeast phase, harvested the mice at various time intervals and made total colony counts from the various tissues

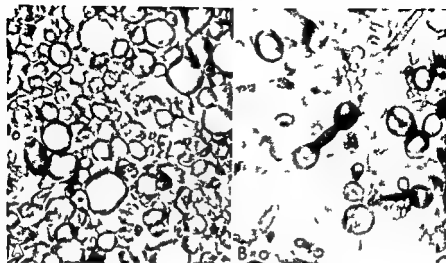


Fig 10 Yeast phase of *Histoplasma capsulatum* A Giant forms at edge of necrotic area of thrombus aortic valve B Giant forms bumbell forms and mycelial elements deeper within necrotic area (From Binford C H *Histoplasmosis Tissue reactions and morphologic variation of the fungus Am J Clin Path* 23 25 36 1955 Courtesy of Armed Forces Inst Pathology Washington D C)

cussions are sometimes referred to as degenerate or giant forms Dowding (20) Weed (80) Schwarz (73) have all emphasized the close resemblance of these heavy walled forms to the yeast cell of *Blastomyces* However recently these forms have been given a new significance since they are believed to be a true tissue phase in the life cycle of a strain of *Histoplasma* isolated from African *Histoplasmosis* (23 24) This isolate has been named *Histoplasma duboisii*

Mycologically the mycelial form of this fungus is identical to and can be duplicated by any strain of *H. capsulatum* However in the lymph nodes of a patient from which cultures were isolated the yeast cells were ovoid 10 by 13.5 μ in size They had a double wall 1 to 2 μ thick and contained a very large amount of fat as a single perfectly round globule or as numerous small globules which filled the cell almost completely Numerous budding cells were also observed When inoculated intratesticularly into Guinea pigs numerous *capsulatum* forms of the organism were observed after 8 days At three weeks testis punctures revealed the presence of

many yeast forms larger than those observed with *H. capsulatum*. Subsequently the number of duboisii forms increased until at two months after inoculation this form predominate. Subsequent conversion of the mycelium to yeast phase on the Kurung and Yegian medium showed that in general the yeast cells of *H. duboisii* were larger than those of *H. capsulatum* with many forms 13 to 15 μ in diameter (25).

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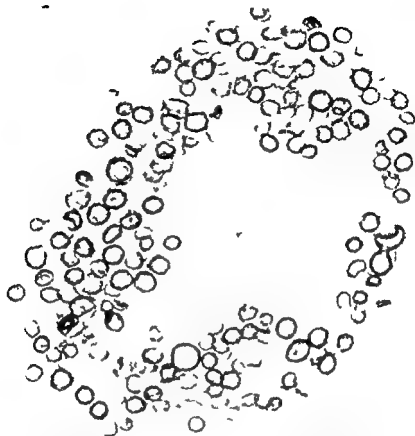


Fig. 11. Tissue phase of African strain of *Histoplasma dubosii* in hamster liver. Large yeast cells within giant cell. Majority of cells are larger than 10μ . Note budding cells at the left and at the top of the field. (Courtesy Schwart and Drouhet. Morphologic features of an African strain of *Histoplasma* in hamsters and mice. *IMA Arch Path* 61:409-413, 1957.)

Logarithmic growth of the yeast phase was observed in the animals from the first to fourteenth day with an estimated generation time of 15 to 19 hours. Since single colonies undoubtedly grew from macrophages containing many yeast cells the generation time of the yeast phase of *Histoplasma* in tissues is probably less than 15 hours.

In general the growth of the yeast phase on blood agar or serum media occurs at temperatures between 31 and 37°C . At lower temperatures conversion of the yeast phase to the mycelial

phase generally occurs. However, yeast phase growth may be maintained at temperatures of 25°C (26-70). There has been no report as to the optimum temperature determined within small increments for yeast phase growth on a given medium. Nevertheless, the results of Scherr (71) suggest that this is less than 30°C since greater amounts of yeast phase growth occurred at 25°C. Cysteine was required for yeast phase growth at 25°C (71). Other workers have also found that a temperature of 37°C is inhibitory to the yeast phase growth (26-28). At 37°C the yeast phase is more sensitive to vitamin deletions than it is at 25°C and the rates of growth of several strains are greater at 25°C if not equal to those at 37°C. Salvin (62) found that growth of the yeast phase at 15°C was less than that obtained at 37°C. Negroni (50) found that the yeast phase did not survive 15 minutes incubation at a temperature of 33°C. Therefore, it would appear that the value of a temperature of 37°C lies not in its stimulation of the yeast phase growth but in its inhibition of yeast phase conversion to mycelial phase and the subsequent inhibition of mycelial phase growth.

The optimum pH for yeast phase growth is considered to be between 6.5 and 7.5. Cross (13) tested the effect of pH on yeast phase growth in three different media. In Sabouraud's broth all growth was mycelial regardless of pH. On beef extract broth the best growth was from pH 7.0 to 7.5. All strains showed a tendency to convert at pH 6.7 to 7.0 and 7.5 to 7.9. Best yeast phase growth was supported by brain heart infusion and this was at pH 7.2 to 7.6. Salvin (62) found the maximum growth of the yeast phase occurred between pH 6.3 and 8.1. On a basal agar medium with added whole blood the rate of growth of one strain of *H. capsulatum* was the same at pH 5.5, 6.5 and 7.5 (54). However, with serum albumin substituted for blood, the rate of growth increased with increase in pH. Yet, the numbers of colonies obtained from small numbers of yeast cells were much lower at pH 6.5 than at 4.5. The rate of growth of the yeast phase on a synthetic medium increased from pH 4.5 to 6.5 but no growth was obtained at pH 7.0 and 8.0. These results were interpreted as suggesting a requirement for cysteine (24).

As a carbon source for growth, Negroni (50) found glucose, mannose, mannitol or inulin supported the best growth while

growth on starch was somewhat poorer. Fructose, galactose, lactose, maltose, and sucrose did not support good growth and no growth occurred on xylose. Of several sugars and polysaccharides tested, Pine (54) found that glucose and glycerol were the best substrates for growth of the yeast phase. Small additions of organic acids in the presence of glucose did not stimulate growth although the addition of pyruvate and fumarate inhibited growth. Subsequently it was found that as a single substrate, alpha ketoglutaric acid supported a high rate of growth of 10 strains. By itself, citrate supported good growth of only five strains, whereas in combination with glucose a high rate of growth for all strains was noted (58).

Negroni (50) failed to obtain growth on a synthetic medium with 0.1% amounts of potassium nitrate, ammonium sulfate, asparagine, or peptone as the sole nitrogen source. Salvin (66) observed extensive growth of the yeast phase only in the presence of amino acids or proteose peptone. The development of the yeast phase did not occur to any great extent on ammonium nitrate, purines, uric acid, ammonium sulfate, urea, or acetamide. On a synthetic amino acid mixture, Salvin (66) was unable to demonstrate the requirement for any single amino acid. However, when single amino acids or tripeptides were used as the nitrogen source, only cystine, cysteine, and glutathione supported growth. In the presence of non-sulfur amino acids, cystine, cysteine, methionine, methyl cystine, and di-homocystine supported pure yeast phase growth, whereas sodium thioglycolate, glutathione, diglycylcystine, and NaHS supported a mixture of mycelium and yeast. Subsequently, Pine (54) observed that the maximum rate of growth for five strains occurred on a mixture of glutamic acids, aspartic acid, and cysteine. In the presence of glutamic and aspartic acids, methionine would not substitute for cysteine, and in the presence of casein hydrolyzate, glutathione likewise would not substitute for cysteine. In a defined medium containing glutamic and aspartic acids, equal rates and amounts of growth were obtained with 0.1 and 0.05% cysteine, while no growth was obtained with 0.025% cysteine. Analyses for cysteine-cystine showed that these completely disappeared from the medium during growth. On the basis of these results, the results obtained with changes in pH, known reac-

tions of cysteine with pyruvate (72) and with fumarate (57) it was suggested that both the amino acid cysteine and the $-SH$ radical were required for growth of the yeast phase. Scherr (71) has found that cysteine is required to maintain yeast phase growth at $25^{\circ}C$. The exact role of the $-SH$ radical in promoting the growth of the yeast phase is not known although this requirement also is known to exist in other dimorphic fungi (69-53).

The vitamins necessary to induce growth of a relatively large inoculation of the yeast phase will vary with the type of assay used, assay medium and strains tested. Salvin (66) demonstrated a general requirement by eight strains of yeast phase cultures for approximately 1.0 millimicrogram of biotin per ml when cysteine was the sole source of nitrogen. Dethiobiotin or o heterobiotin would not substitute for the biotin requirement. Therefore the sulfur in biotin would appear to be essential under these conditions. Subsequently it was found that eight of 11 strains required thiamin (approximately 0.02 micrograms/ml) for maximum rate of growth in a casein hydrolyzate medium; one strain required biotin and a second was stimulated by thioctic acid (56). These requirements however were not absolute since most of the strains were capable of continued growth for as many as four transfers in the absence of added vitamins; some strains required 3 or 4 transfers before any deficiency was noted. Carbon dioxide has been observed to be stimulatory under certain conditions (65-54) but not under others (55).

It is generally recognized that small numbers of yeast cells are sensitive to external factors and under these circumstances the organism is relatively difficult to grow. Plating experiments on agar media show that when an inoculum is reduced to 500 cells or less few colonies appear at $37^{\circ}C$ even though these cells are capable of growing as mycelial colonies at $25^{\circ}C$ (55). Rowley and Huber (62) found that the viability of the yeast cell decreased rapidly when suspended in physiological saline at $25^{\circ}C$ whereas at $5^{\circ}C$ the viability was maintained for 1 hour. Sixty per cent of the cells suspended in saline having 0.1% cysteine still retained their ability to grow into mycelial colonies at $25^{\circ}C$ after maintenance for 24 hours at $4^{\circ}C$. Only 35% remained viable in the absence of cysteine. When small numbers of yeast cells were inoculated into stagnant liquid

tubes oleic acid was required to initiate growth of some strains (54). However, when the tubes are shaken no growth will occur unless the inoculum is increased to approximately 500 000 cells per ml (54-71). The factors necessary to initiate growth of smaller inocula in shaking tubes are unknown. The need for $-SH$ may reflect the requirements for a lowered oxidation-reduction potential (71) or serves in some unknown manner to maintain the viability of the cell until growth commences. Of the factors which stimulate growth of the yeast phase, Salvin (65) was the first to observe the beneficial effects of small amounts of agar and silica gel. Subsequently the value of agar, albumin, and starch have been noted (44, 81, 54, 64, 55, 71). Although these may function to bind toxic fatty acids and make these acids available for growth, it should be recognized that these substances and cysteine are strong metal-binding substances. Therefore, their stimulation may be a consequence of chelation and not a result of detoxification or satisfaction of nutritional needs.

The yeast is non-fermentative in its growth on carbohydrates and forms neither acid nor gas from a variety of sugars. The organism reduces nitrates to nitrites, but does not form indole or acetyl-methyl-carbinol, does not hydrolyze starch, cellulose, or affect milk (50).

In a general way the yeast phase may be described as a more sensitive phase than the mycelial phase and one whose growth factor requirements are more stringent than those of the mycelial phase. It is apparently more adapted for growth at 37°C. Although all the growth requirements are not known or understood, there is a strong suggestion that the yeast phase is deficient in its ability to synthesize sulfur-containing growth factors, since cysteine, cystine, biotin, thiamin are the only compounds that have been demonstrated as general requirements. It too is a strong aerobe which preferentially oxidizes sugars and carboxylic acids for growth. It forms no extracellular toxins. So far there is no single absolute major physiological criterion known for distinguishing this phase from the mycelial phase with the exception that the yeast phase is the phase most capable of significant growth in the mammalian host.

Conversion of the Yeast Phase to the Mycelial Phase Conversion of the yeast phase to mycelial phase is generally accomplished

by simply dropping the incubation temperature of the yeast phase from 37 to 25 °C. Using slide cultures and Van Tieghem cell cultures at room temperature Conant (10) described the morphological changes which occurred in conversion to the mycelial phase. Within 24 hours the yeast cells became swollen reaching a size of $3.5 \times 5.5 \mu$ and within 48 hours had produced short germ tubes. The germ tubes originated from the pointed end from both ends and occasionally from the sides. Occasionally three germ tubes from a single cell were observed. The germ tube soon became septate branched and showed a highly vacuolate protoplasm and numerous oil droplets. The subsequent development and characteristics of the mycelial phase have been described earlier in this chapter.

Rowley and Pine (64) have reported on some of the nutritional factors concerned in the conversion of the yeast phase to the mycelial phase. The numbers of colonies originating from 100 cell aggregates of one strain was much less in the absence of calcium pantothenate. However with three other strains no differences in colony counts were observed in the presence or absence of pantothenate. Similar studies showed that glutamic acid isoleucine lysine proline or serine were implicated in the conversion of one or more of the strains. Phosphate was found to be inhibitory in the medium and this inhibition could be reversed by the addition of starch. These results suggest that the converting organism has greater nutritional requirements than the subsequent mycelial phase and requirements different from that of the yeast phase. However it should be considered that this is perhaps a more delicate assay for nutritional requirements than can be accomplished for the yeast phase growing as yeast colonies. Such requirements may have been hidden by the assay methods used for the yeast or mycelial phase.

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SAPROPHYTIC RESERVOIRS OF HISTOPLASMA

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The sporadic occurrence of cases of histoplasmosis without evidence of contagion suggested early in the study of this mycosis that there might be a reservoir in nature from which man was infected. Darling in reporting his discovery and original studies of histoplasmosis expressed the opinion that the microorganism (which he erroneously believed was a protozoan) had a saprophytic existence and he searched for it in stagnant water as well as in animals (4).

DeMonbreun in the second epochal advance in knowledge about histoplasmosis suggested also that judging from its cultural characteristics the saprophytic form of *Histoplasma capsulatum* probably exists free in nature. On the other hand it is possible that certain insects serve as carriers of the parasitic form of the fungus (5). The predictions of both men were confirmed in part in 1949 by the isolation of *Histoplasma* from soil and the demonstration of macroconidia of the saprophytic growth phase in the first two positive soil specimens (6).

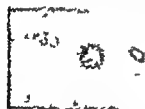


Fig. 1 Macroconidium of *Histoplasma* from first positive soil sample

METHODS OF ISOLATION FROM SOIL

Methods used in isolating *Histoplasma* from soil are based upon the method used by Stewart and Meyer to isolate *Coccidioides* from soil (31). Several modifications of this method have been proposed. The methods I have found most convenient and generally satisfactory have been described in the paper reporting the original isolation of *Histoplasma* from soil (6) and in a more recent report

of continued investigations of this occurrence (7). Briefly the method is as follows:

At a time when the soil is dry, collect samples in cotton stoppered 25 x 150 mm test tubes by scooping the soil up with the lip of the tube. Select samples from soil under the edges of a chicken house or at any place indicated as the probable source of a patient's exposure. If the specimens can not be processed immediately after collection, store them in the cotton stoppered tubes at 1°C in order to permit further drying, and to check growth and change in the microflora and microfauna.

Transfer 10 to 15 ml of the soil to a second 25 x 150 mm tube, add 0.8% NaCl solution to nearly fill the tube, insert a sterile rubber stopper and shake vigorously for 15-20 seconds. Allow the solids to settle for 10-15 minutes, pipette 5 or 10 ml of the supernatant to a conical glass or small beaker and add for each 1 ml of supernatant 0.2 ml of antibiotic solution (2 mg streptomycin and 5 mg penicillin per 1 ml water). Inject 1 ml of this mixture intraperitoneally into each of 5 or 10 mice. Occasional soil specimens contain bacteria pathogenic for mice and if inoculated mice appear ill on the following day, inject an additional 0.25 ml of antibiotic solution intraperitoneally. After 1 week, kill the mice and make cultures of liver and spleen by spreading pieces of these organs with a stiff loop over the surface of Sabouraud's agar slants. Incubate the cultures at 30°C or room temperature, never at 37°C unless there are special reasons for isolating the fungus in the yeast phase. In this case blood agar or another special medium must be substituted for Sabouraud's. Cultures can usually be read in 10 days, but should not be discarded as negative before 3 weeks.

RELATIONSHIP OF ANIMALS TO THE SOIL RESERVOIR

The actual isolation of *Histoplasma* from soil (6) followed a systematic search which was begun in an area in northern Virginia where 4 fatal cases of histoplasmosis had been reported (25) where epidemiologic studies conducted over a period of years showed that 83% of the general population reacted to the histoplasmin intradermal test while 41 per cent had calcified pulmonary lesions (27) and where naturally acquired histoplasmosis was proved by isolation

of *H. capsulatum* in culture from about 3.5% of 2,149 Norway rats and from 7 other species of animals (11-14). Later studies using the very sensitive technique of injecting ground mediastinal and hilar lymph nodes of healthy dogs and cats intraperitoneally into mice and culturing the livers and spleens of the experimentally infected mice at autopsy revealed that in this area 44 per cent of healthy dogs and cats had benign histoplasmosis (28-33). These animals are not reservoirs or sources of *Histoplasma* in the sense that they transmit histoplasmosis directly to other animals or to man. The possibility that the rare case of fatal canine histoplasmosis (in which lesions of the intestinal mucosa are prominent) results in an effective seeding of soil can not be denied. Certainly large numbers of *Histoplasma* cells are excreted by these animals with intestinal lesions but the ability of the delicate yeast-like cells of *Histoplasma* to survive biological competition in the feces and to germinate and establish themselves in soil where they fall has not been proved. It is not necessary to assume that such a seeding of soil is essential to the life cycle of *Histoplasma* nor to its persistence in an endemic area. *Histoplasma* grows sparsely on sterilized soil in the laboratory and maintains its fertility and virility longer on this medium than upon richer culture media ordinarily used. Moreover, actual isolations of literally hundreds of typical and virulent strains of *Histoplasma* from soil conclusively prove its saprophytic growth in soil or organic debris in nature under suitable conditions. The biological advantages of this ability to grow as a saprophyte will be discussed later in this chapter.

It is notable that *Histoplasma* was isolated from two other species of animals (the roof rat and spotted skunk) in southern Georgia where less than 3% of the population react to histoplasmin and where *Histoplasma* has not yet been isolated from soil although its saprophytic growth in soil may be assumed here with almost as much confidence as in many other parts of the world where actual isolations have been reported (12). Dogs and cats could not be included conveniently among the species of animals examined in southern Georgia although these species were found to be so frequently infected in Virginia. Where unwanted dogs or cats can be collected from rural owners and examined by the very productive

method mentioned above they provide a more direct sensitive and reliable index of the presence of *Histoplasma* in an area than dependence upon histoplasmin which may give nonspecific reactions in man and shows no correlation between dermal reactions and proved benign histoplasmosis in the dog (13). Mouse passage of dog lymph nodes has been more productive also than direct sampling of soil probably because the dog is a susceptible host and his close contact with soil makes him an efficient collector of *Histoplasma* from his environment.

At the time systematic attempts to isolate *Histoplasma* from soil were begun the only guide to selection of probably productive sites was the proved occurrence of histoplasmosis in Norway rats trapped on certain farm premises and assumed to be infected from soil (11). Therefore soil samples were taken from rat burrows and runways found on these farms which were located in a rural county in northern Virginia. The first positive samples were from mounds of clay soil at the entrance to a rat burrow under the edge of a chicken house (6). Macroconidia of *H. capsulatum* were visually demonstrated in these first positive samples (Fig. 1).

The studies of Laidberg, *et al.* in Tennessee (31) and continued experience in northern Virginia (7-11) amply proved that it was the association with chicken droppings rather than the presence of rats which influenced the occurrence and distribution of *Histoplasma* in soil on the farm where the original isolations were made as well as on many other farm premises. This association has been confirmed by many investigators (1, 2, 16, 17, 30). It is apparent also that it is not a host-parasite relationship which is responsible for the association between *Histoplasma* and chickens. No naturally infected chickens have been found and the chicken is not susceptible to progressive experimental infection although it can harbor injected spores of the fungus for varying periods of time. It is probable that the single factor of the high body temperature of birds precludes the possibility of an avian reservoir. There is no reason to believe that either an avian or animal reservoir of histoplasmosis is responsible for the distribution of *Histoplasma* in soil (2, 7, 21). On the contrary all the known evidence points to a saprophytic reservoir of the fungus in soil or organic debris from which both men and

animals (when exposed and susceptible) are infected

The saprophytic association with chickens need not be immediate in time or space. *Histoplasma* has been isolated from chicken coop litter deposited in small piles on an exposed hillside many weeks before (7-10) from garden soil fertilized with chicken manure (20) and from underneath blue grass sod on the site of a chicken house torn down and removed three years previously (7). Follow up studies of these materials and sites to determine precisely how long *Histoplasma* can survive under such conditions have not yet been reported.

Not all chicken houses nor the soil under and around them have been found to be contaminated by *Histoplasma* although similar buildings on neighboring farm premises may yield the fungus. Some attempts to isolate *Histoplasma* from commercial establishments producing eggs or fryers have been unsuccessful. Whether this is due to better sanitation in the average commercial chicken house, to inadequate sampling or to other unrecognized factors has not been determined. The isolations from inside chicken houses usually have been from old and poorly constructed buildings or coops with leaking roofs or open fronts which permit entry of rain so that the litter is frequently wet. However *Histoplasma* may be and often is isolated from protected areas under the eaves and walls of well built chicken houses in good repair and from shaded and protected areas in chicken yards and runways.

SAPROPHYTIC OCCURRENCE NOT ASSOCIATED WITH CHICKENS

Although the association between the presence of *Histoplasma* in soil or organic debris and the presence of chickens has been shown in many studies, this association is neither necessary nor constant. *Histoplasma* was isolated repeatedly from the inner walls and the foundation ledge near the base of an old silo (unused for many years) in which birds had nested and from which members of a farm family were infected while cleaning the silo (21). In this admirable and fully documented study, serologic tests indicated histoplasmosis in only those members of the household who were exposed to dust

and debris from the silo the severity of the disease in those infected increased with the intensity of exposure and *Histoplasma* was isolated from only one of the patients. The isolation of *Histoplasma* has been reported from the inside of hollow trees which were the probable sources of infection in children who had played in these places (16-17) from soil in a river bottom where fishermen had dug, but from the basement of a building in a city and from the walls of a storm cellar (16). *Histoplasma* was isolated many times and at all seasons of the year from the dirt floor of a meat house where home-cured bacon and hams were hung and where rat burrows were numerous in the dirt floor (7).

In an outbreak in Cincinnati involving several cases of pneumonitis in men engaged in cleaning out an old water tower in which pigeons had roosted and nested for many years the diagnosis of histoplasmosis was made in retrospect upon the basis of serologic and epidemiologic evidence and *Histoplasma* was isolated from the base of the tower (29). A similar epidemic with similar exposure was reported from Hittsburg New York (32). Unfortunately cryptococcosis was not considered in the differential diagnosis of the illnesses in either epidemic and *Cryptococcus* was not isolated from the organic material at the base of the tower although this fungus has since been shown to be very frequently associated with pigeon droppings and old pigeon nests (8-18-19-23).

HISTOPLASMA IN CAVES

In Peru *Histoplasma* has been isolated from the floor of a cave (Cueva de las Lechuzas near Tingo Maria) notorious as a source of infection known locally as Fiebre de Tingo Maria and now recognized as histoplasmosis (22). This cave two other caves in Peru one in Venezuela and one in Trinidad are inhabited by a nocturnal fruit eating bird *Steatornis caripensis* known locally as Gaucharo and is the oil bird. It is prized as a source of oil obtained from its fat and residents of the area have frequented the cave to collect these birds. The association between visits to Cueva de las Lechuzas and cases of Fiebre de Tingo Maria had been known to Peruvian physicians for some ten years before it was recognized

that this disease is histoplasmosis. Histoplasma was isolated from a soil sample taken from the floor of a portion of the cave which harbors a concentration of *S. caripensis* and the droppings of these birds are believed to support the growth of Histoplasma. The possible role of bats in maintaining Histoplasma in this cave has not been determined.

In Venezuela Histoplasma has been isolated from a cave in Estado Lara and an official warning was issued to speleologists and others that entrance into at least four Venezuelan caves and perhaps many others is hazardous because of the danger of infection by Histoplasma (3). *S. caripensis* was not incriminated in these caves but it was suggested that bat guano may be the significant ecological factor and one Vampire bat (not infected with Histoplasma) was captured. Histoplasma was isolated from dust of a cave in South Africa (26). Speleologists and persons removing bat guano from this and neighboring caves have acquired histoplasmosis. This is in an area (the Transvaal) where histoplasmin sensitization in the general population is low. Speleologists from the Cape have not encountered Histoplasma in caves in that area. The ability of bat guano to support growth of Histoplasma is generally assumed. It is probable that colonization by bats is the ecological factor responsible for the presence of Histoplasma in many caves. Samples of bat guano from two caves and soil from five other limestone caves which did not harbor large colonies of bats were made in western Virginia and eastern West Virginia (7). Histoplasma was not isolated from any of these but this negative evidence of course may reflect only inadequate sampling or may indicate that not all caves which harbor bats are contaminated by Histoplasma just as some chicken houses in an endemic area are free of this fungus.

A recent review of small epidemics of pneumonitis in persons entering caves in Mexico has been made by González Ochoa (15a). Epidemiologic evidence either in retrospect or in cases recently studied (2a) and laboratory evidence in the latter cases indicate that these illnesses were actually histoplasmosis. They occurred for the most part in persons collecting bat guano for commercial use as fertilizer.

HISTOPLASMA ASSOCIATED WITH THE HOUSE BAT

A recently studied family outbreak of histoplasmosis involving death of an infant and illness in several siblings appears to incriminate bats under circumstances which may be significant in interpreting the epidemiology of histoplasmosis in some urban areas (9). No chickens had been kept on these rural premises for many years although a small shed once used for chickens remained at the beginning of the study and was at that time used as a storage shed and dog house. Three soil samples taken from near this shed were positive but a much heavier concentration of *Histoplasma* was found around the residence of the family. This house was old with loose siding and cornices and it harbored a large colony of the common brown bat *Eptesicus fuscus*. *Histoplasma* was isolated many times from soil samples taken adjacent to the foundation of the house on all four sides of the house and was uniformly absent or not demonstrable from soil samples taken at distances of several feet away from the foundation. Bat droppings were easily observed in soil samples taken adjacent to the foundation of the house. Bat colonization by *E. fuscus* (often called the house bat) of old houses and shop buildings in some towns and cities is well known and should be investigated as a source of urban histoplasmosis.

GEOGRAPHIC DIFFERENCES IN RATES OF HISTOPLASMIN REACTIONS

Studies concerning the saprophytic occurrence in nature of *Histoplasma* can not be fully reported without a discussion of attempts which have been made to explain the geographic distribution of histoplasmin sensitivity on geologic or broad climatologic bases. It has been assumed that geographic areas of high prevalence of histoplasmin sensitivity coincide with the distribution of *Histoplasma* and histoplasmosis. While it is true that *Histoplasma* has been isolated from human cases, animals and soil most often in areas where a high percentage of the general population react to histoplasmin, the fungus and infections resulting from exposure to it occur also in areas where few persons react to the test, e.g., in southern Georgia and in South Africa as noted above. Moreover out-

breaks of histoplasmosis and isolations of the fungus have been reported in small areas with localized high histoplasmin sensitivity rates in regions remote from eastern and central United States where rates have been shown to be unusually high. Furthermore the maps showing histoplasmin rates while valuable and generally valid are not complete. For example the tidewater areas of Virginia and Maryland although long known to harbor *Histoplasma* (25, 27, 10) have been omitted from earlier maps because the testing that was done involved only a few hundred people. These maps tend to focus attention on a so-called endemic area, an emphasis which may decrease the search for and recognition of cases of histoplasmosis remote from such areas.

Regardless of these considerations attempts to explain the remarkable geographic differences in rates of histoplasmin sensitivity are highly commendable. Zeidberg has pointed out a general coincidence between the distribution of red podzolic soils and that of histoplasmin sensitivity (33). It has been suggested also that the distribution of histoplasmosis lies within the great river basins (15) *that distribution is determined by the direction of prevailing winds* (15) and that sensitization to the fungus is more frequent in valleys than along adjacent ridges (35). These observations and theories may well have merit and deserve further investigation. However they do not appear to fit the observed facts concerning the distribution of histoplasmosis outside the areas usually considered endemic and especially they minimize the importance of the highly localized distribution of *Histoplasma* on e.g. specific farm premises inside or outside areas of prevalent histoplasmin sensitivity.

It is the general experience of investigators that *Histoplasma* can usually be isolated on a farm only within an area of a few square yards. The association with chicken houses has been well documented earlier in the chapter but an additional instance studied over a period of many months might be cited. On a large tobacco farm near Chesapeake Bay on Maryland's Eastern Shore *Histoplasma* could not be isolated from soil adjacent to any of many barns and outbuildings except one small poorly constructed chicken house. Forty-two of 142 samples taken from inside and under the eaves and walls of this shed yielded *Histoplasma* regularly at all

seasons of the year. In some collections as many as 70% of specimens were positive (7). Here as elsewhere *Histoplasma* can be found only in the superficial layers of soil, often in protected areas under the eaves of the building but sometimes in dry soil with full exposure to sun. The correlations so far proposed between varying rates of histoplasmin reactors and geological and climatological factors do not explain the observed localized occurrence of *Histoplasma* in the United States nor elsewhere in the world.

Histoplasma shares with most of the fungi which cause subcutaneous and generalized infections a free living independent saprophytic existence in nature and inability to pass directly from an infected host to the latter's contacts. Only the saprophytic growth phases of these dimorphic fungi are effective in dissemination of the fungi and production of infection under natural conditions.

The biological advantages of the possession of a free living saprophytic growth phase are somewhat more apparent in the case of *Histoplasma* than for some of the other pathogens. The parasitic growth form is a delicate thin walled yeast which loses its viability within a few hours even in physiological salt solution. The macroconidia, microconidia and hyphal fragments of the saprophytic growth form on the other hand are resistant to drying, are produced in large numbers by the fungus and are well adapted to dissemination of viable infective elements.

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GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF HISTOPLASMA CAPSULATUM

LIBERO AJELLO

As a result of the discovery of the benign form of histoplasmosis by Christie and Petersen in 1945 (1) great interest has been aroused in this mycotic disease and its etiologic agent *Histoplasma capsulatum*. The disease which formerly had been considered rare has come to be recognized as one that is widely prevalent and is a serious public health problem. Consequently histoplasmosis and its causative fungus have been the subject of numerous investigations. From clinical ecological epidemiological and skin test surveys carried out by many investigators throughout the world much has been learned about the geographic distribution of *H. capsulatum*.

Skin test surveys of histoplasmin sensitivity among the inhabitants of many regions of the world have furnished the most comprehensive information relative to geographic distribution. Excellent reviews of these studies have been prepared by Manos *et al* (2) and by Edwards and Klaer (3). The distribution maps (see p. 198) from these papers reveal that population centers with high histoplasmin reactivity exist in many areas of the world. The existence of sensitivity in the inhabitants of a region is considered evidence that the sensitizing agent is also concentrated there since a positive histoplasmin reaction is generally indicative of specific infection by *H. capsulatum*.

Cross reactions to other fungus antigens are not known to occur except in those areas of the New World where *Coccidioides immitis* is endemic. The coccidioidin positive individual often cross reacts with histoplasmin but usually his histoplasmin reaction is appreciably less intense.

In order to avoid erroneous conclusions in delineating endemic areas skin test surveys must be conducted in such a manner that small islands of endemicity are not overlooked or that reactors who

may have acquired their sensitivity through travel or residency in other areas do not affect the validity of the results. For this reason population samples large enough to be statistically significant should be used and individuals who might have acquired their sensitivity elsewhere should be eliminated from the survey.

Unequivocal proof of the existence of *H. capsulatum* in a region is provided by recovery of the fungus from soil. Isolation studies leave no doubt that *H. capsulatum* exists as a free living microorganism in suitable habitats throughout the world. On this basis its endemicity has been established in North Central and South America and in Africa and Asia (Table I).

TABLE I

RECORDED SOIL ISOLATIONS OF *HISTOPLASMA CAPSULATUM* THROUGHOUT THE WORLD

Region	Reference	Region	Reference
NORTH AMERICA		CENTRAL AFRICA	
United States		Panama	18
Alabama	4	SOUTH AMERICA	
Arkansas	5	Brazil	
Florida	6	Bahia	19
Illinois	5, 7	Free Chiquita	20
Indiana	5	Peru	1
Iowa	5	Trinidad	21
Kansas	5	Venezuela	19, 23
Kentucky	8	ASIA	
Maryland	9	India	
Minnesota	8	Poona	21
Missouri	5	AFRICA	
New York	10	Union of South Africa	
Ohio	5	Transvaal	22
Oklahoma	5	EUROPE	
Pennsylvania	9	Italy	
Tennessee	11, 12, 13	Lombardy†	
Texas	14		
Virginia	1		
West Virginia	16		
Wisconsin	8		
MEXICO			
Tampulpa	1		

For the present purposes *H. duboisii* is considered to be a synonym of *H. capsulatum* or at most a variety.

†Person in communication: Dr. R. Ciferri.

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In order to avoid erroneous conclusions in delineating endemic areas skin test surveys must be conducted in such a manner that small islands of endemicity are not overlooked or that reactors who

nated with bird droppings may provide conditions so favoring the development of *H. capsulatum* that the fungus can successfully compete with other soil microorganisms which ordinarily would outgrow and eliminate it.

There is no valid proof that chickens or other birds serve as carriers of this fungus (30) the experiments of Menges *et al* (31) and Schwartz *et al* (32) notwithstanding. These investigators demonstrated the survival of *H. capsulatum* yeast phase cells in test birds but no evidence regarding the susceptibility of birds to infection was presented.

The detection and isolation of *H. capsulatum* in wild animals

TABLE III

HISTOPLASMA CAPSULATUM INFECTIONS IN DOMESTIC ANIMALS

Locality	Species	Reference
NORTH AMERICA		
United States		
Indiana	Dog	44
Iowa	Dog	44
Kansas	Dog	44
Kentucky	Dog	8
Michigan	Dog	44
Missouri	Dog	44
Ohio	Dog	44
Tennessee	Dog	44
Virginia	Dog	44
Washington	Dog	33
Kansas	Cat	4
Virginia	Cat	33
Tennessee	Horse	46, 17
Missouri	Cow	49
SOUTH AMERICA		
Brazil	Dog	49
CENTRAL AMERICA		
Panama	Dog	50
CANADA		
Ontario	Dog	51
Unsubstantiated Records		
Turkey	Cat	52
Hawa	Cow	52
United States	Cat	54

It has been observed that *H. capsulatum* is more apt to occur in warm habitats than in other locations. This association was first detected by Zeidberg and Ajello (26) and has since been verified by many investigators (10, 27, 29). Although the basis for this relationship remains unknown it has been hypothesized that soil contami-

TABLE II

NATURALLY ACQUIRED HISTOPLASMA CAPSULATUM INFECTIONS IN WILD MAMMALS

Locality	Species	Reference
NORTH AMERICA		
<i>United States</i>		
Georgia	<i>Didelphis virginiana</i> —Opossum	37
Georgia	<i>Mephitis mephitis</i> —Striped skunk	31
Georgia	<i>Procyon lotor</i> —Raccoon	37
Georgia	<i>Rattus norvegicus</i> —Brown rat	33
Georgia	<i>R. rattus</i> —Black rat	33
Georgia	<i>Spilogale putorius</i> —Spotted skunk	33
Georgia	<i>Urocyon cinereoargenteus</i> —Grey fox	37
Georgia	<i>Vulpes fulva</i> —Red fox	37
Kansas	<i>I. lotor</i>	34
Kansas	<i>M. mephitis</i>	34
Missouri	<i>R. norvegicus</i>	34
Virginia	<i>D. virginiana</i>	33
Virginia	<i>Marmota monax</i> —Woodchuck	33
Virginia	<i>M. Mephitis</i>	33
Virginia	<i>Mus musculus</i> —House mouse	33
Virginia	<i>R. norvegicus</i>	33
Virginia	<i>U. cinereoargenteus</i>	33
SOUTH AMERICA		
<i>Brazil</i>		
Bahia	<i>R. norvegicus</i>	3
AFRICA		
<i>French Guinea</i>	<i>Cynocephalus babuin</i> (<i>Papio cynocephalus</i>)—Yellow baboon	36
<i>Unsubstantiated Records</i>		
SOUTH AMERICA		
Surinam	Large series of insects, birds and mammals	38, 40
EUROPE		
Italy	<i>Mus rattus</i> (<i>R. rattus</i>)	41
ASIA		
India	Mouse (white laboratory)	42
NORTH AMERICA		
<i>United States</i>		
Illinois	Ferret	43

cats and horses in many states of the United States. In addition canine infections have been diagnosed in Brazil, Panama and Canada (Table III).

Finally human cases of histoplasmosis diagnosed on a histological basis or by culture furnish an insight into the distribution of *H. capsulatum*. Here the records must be interpreted judiciously for often an infection has been contracted in areas far from the place of diagnosis. This type of difficulty was illustrated clearly by Symmers when he evaluated the reports of histoplasmosis diagnosed in Britain (55). Edwards and Klaer (3) compiled and cited references to all cases of human histoplasmosis diagnosed in the world with the exception of Canada and the U.S.A. from 1906-1955. The interested reader is referred to those sources for pertinent data. Records that have been reported since 1955 are listed in Table IV.

DISCUSSION

Very intensive surveys of the prevalence of histoplasmin sensitivity have been carried out within the United States (2). Areas with histoplasmin sensitivity ranging from 70 to 90% among young adults with a life time of residency in the areas are found in the states of Alabama, Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio and Tennessee. Centers with positive histoplasmin reactions of 10 to 15% occur over a wide area, some of them are far from the centers of highest reactivity (see p. 199).

Palmer, Edwards and Alfather (63) hold that some of the histoplasmin sensitivity in the peripheral areas either represents cross reactions with coccidioidomycosis or non-specific reactions with another undetermined fungus infection. It is reasonable to assume that some of the histoplasmin sensitivity noted in California, Arizona, New Mexico and Western Texas represents cross reactivity with coccidioidomycosis. But the possibility should be entertained that true histoplasmin sensitivity may also exist in those areas. Favorable conditions for the survival and propagation of *H. capsulatum* probably occur in the coccidioidomycosis endemic areas.

There is evidence that the southern portion of the United States is not free of *H. capsulatum*. This fungus has been isolated

also serve to fix and reveal the presence of the fungus in a specific territory. Wild animals rarely wander from their chosen territories and presumably become infected by *H. capsulatum* spores present in their environment. There is no evidence for the transmission of histoplasmosis from one animal to another. Timmons (33), Menges (34), Silva (35), Marriott (36), Ajello (37) and their co-workers have revealed that a large number and variety of mammals in several areas of the United States and at least one area in Brazil and one in Africa have naturally acquired *H. capsulatum* infections (Table II).

Domestic animals, particularly cats and dogs, are also susceptible to infection by *H. capsulatum* and records of such cases of histoplasmosis serve to verify the presence of the fungus in a given area. Histoplasmosis has been diagnosed in a cow and among dogs

TABLE II
HUMAN CASES OF HISTOPLASMOSIS DIAGNOSED BY CULTURE
OR HISTOLOGICALLY OUTSIDE CANADA AND
THE UNITED STATES

Country	Reference
NORTH AMERICA	
Mexico	
Tamaulipas	17
CENTRAL AMERICA	
Costa Rica†	
CARIBBEAN AREA	
Puerto Rico†	
SOUTH AMERICA	
Peru	56
EUROPE	
Italy	57
AFRICA	
Belgian Congo	58†
Rhodesia	59
Senegal	60
S. West Africa	61
ASIA	
India	21† 62, 66

Only cases not cited by Edwards and Klaer (3)

† For the present purposes *H. duboisii* is considered to be a synonym of *H. capsulatum* or at most a variety

‡ Personal communication. Dr. W. D. Sutcliffe

China are the only two major areas with no records of histoplasmosis. As greater interest is shown in this mold and in histoplasmosis its presence undoubtedly will be established in those countries and in other localities.

ADDENDUM Since submission of this manuscript a visit to India made possible the study of the human and soil isolates of *H. duboisii* (*H. capsulatum*) reported by Kalra, Bocar and Rebello (24). Both of these isolates proved to be *Thielavia sepedonium*, a common saprophytic soil fungus. Thus there is no valid record for the isolation of *H. capsulatum* from the soil in India.

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from soils collected in Alabama (4) Florida (6) Maryland (9) Virginia (15) and West Virginia (16). In addition many wild and domestic animals in Georgia and Virginia have yielded cultures of *H. capsulatum* (33, 27, 11). Campbell (61) in an admirable epidemiological study carried out in the District of Columbia area has stated rightly that histoplasmin sensitivity distribution maps are not entirely accurate.

This inaccuracy stems in part from statistically invalid population samples used in the surveys. For example only 1,520 life time residents were skin tested in Alabama, 1,183 in Georgia, 850 in Maryland, 156 in Virginia and 58 in the District of Columbia (?). These areas have respective populations of 3,061,743, 3,444,578, 2,343,001, 3,318,680 and 802,178.

Palmer *et al.* (63) have postulated a fungus disease other than histoplasmosis is responsible for the histoplasmin sensitivity noted in eastern Texas and in parts of Kansas, Louisiana and Oklahoma. This observation was made despite the fact that there is no clinical, histological or mycologic evidence for the existence in those areas of an unusual prevalence of mycotic diseases that might cross react immunologically with histoplasmosis. Since *H. capsulatum* has been recovered from soils collected in Kansas (5), Oklahoma (5) and Texas (14) it seems logical to conclude that the sensitivity reactions elicited in the sample population represent specific rather than non specific reactions.

H. capsulatum endemic areas in the United States are not as sharply circumscribed as those of *Coccidioides immitis* and many foci are scattered in suitable areas far from the principle endemic regions (10, 65).

It is unrealistic to conclude that histoplasmosis is primarily a disease of the Americas. (3). Well authenticated indigenous cases have been reported from Europe, Africa, Asia and Australia (3). In addition *H. capsulatum* has been recovered from soil in India and in the Union of South Africa (24, 25). At present all that can be said is that *H. capsulatum* apparently is more prevalent in some areas of the United States and Mexico than elsewhere in the world.

What emerges from the data presented is the clear cut fact that *H. capsulatum* is endemic in most areas of the world. Russia and

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RESISTANCE OF ANIMALS AND MAN TO HISTOPLASMOSIS

S. B. SMITH

Resistance to infection with *Histoplasma capsulatum* can be induced in experimental animals by sublethal infection or by vaccination with killed yeast cells or fractions thereof. Pathologic changes attributable to the disease are not as extensive in resistant as in control animals. Immunized animals when challenged with lethal doses show far lower death rates than nonimmunized controls. Initially multiplication of the pathogen is actually inhibited within the tissues of immunized animals. However the basis of this increased resistance is not yet known.

Data are not available which indicate why *H. capsulatum* is virulent. As far as is known cells of the tissue or yeast phase do not produce extracellular enzymes which are injurious to the host. They do not produce demonstrable exotoxins. They do not seem to possess a capsular substance which can inhibit phagocytosis (17). An antigenic factor has not been demonstrated which is correlated with virulence. An endotoxin has been demonstrated (19) but its role in the infectious process has not been investigated.

INCREASED RESISTANCE FOLLOWING SUBLETHAL INFECTION

Increased resistance to reinfection has been demonstrated in mice guinea pigs and dogs (3, 22, 31). In addition infection was modified in the uninoculated eyes of rabbits whose other eyes had been inoculated with the mycelial phase 6-14 weeks earlier (2).

Resistance was demonstrated in immature (35 day old) male mice which had originally been infected with a sublethal dose and later subjected to an intracerebral challenge lethal for normal mice (22). Such mice had a striking decrease in death rate. For example where 92% of control mice died, only 22% of the superinfected

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INCREASED RESISTANCE AFTER VACCINATION WITH KILLED WHOLE CELLS

Resistance to lethal challenge has been produced by injection of killed cells of the yeast phase or fractions thereof (11 20 21). In one laboratory cells of the yeast phase were grown in liquid medium then killed by exposure to 0.5% formalin at room temperature for 72 hours or by exposure to 1:5000 mercuric chloride at 37°C for 5 days. Mice immunized intraperitoneally with such cells dried in acetone at -10°C or *in vacuo* resisted a lethal intracerebral challenge 2 weeks later (20). This work was later confirmed (14). Mice injected with formalin killed suspensions of yeast phase organisms once weekly for 3 weeks resisted lethal intravenous challenge. Also mice injected with heat killed cells resisted lethal intraperitoneal challenge with yeast cells in 5% mucin. There is one report of failure to protect animals with killed yeast phase organisms (18).

Although vaccinated mice tended to survive lethal intracerebral or intravenous challenge, cultures of some of the tissues of these animals were positive. Quantitative cultural studies showed that immunization lowered the number of yeast cells in the host tissues but did not eliminate the pathogen completely. This effect was apparently sufficient to prevent death in the protected mouse subjected to lethal challenge. Live cells of the yeast phase were present in the resistant mouse for long periods after challenge although death did not ensue and histologic study indicated a tendency for the disease to recede. The mouse resistant to *H. capsulatum* may react to the pathogen as a susceptible individual reacts to BCG in tuberculosis resistance, in that growth of the pathogen occurs within the host tissues but to a limited extent.

Studies of the pathology of infection after immunization have confirmed and extended the findings from the foregoing mortality and cultural studies (7). Protection of the brain against intracerebral infection was striking in vaccinated mice as compared to control animals in which extensive meningitis and parenchymal abscesses frequently occurred. The amount of liver and spleen disease in the same animals was however only slightly less than in the controls. Cultural and histologic examination revealed that immunization procedures did not prevent invasion of the fungus from the

mice succumbed to challenge. Neither size of the sublethal infection nor route of injection seemed of importance in the induction of resistance although the rate of development of this resistance did vary with the size of the immunizing dose. In immature male mice inoculated intraperitoneally with 10^6 cells of the yeast phase about 3 days were required for the resistance to become apparent (22). Resistance to lethal intravenous superchallenge has also been demonstrated (13-18).

An immunizing infection does not entirely eliminate the pathogenic fungus from the host tissues. In superinfected animals the fungus did not multiply or develop as much as it did in control animals with the restriction of growth noted especially in the spleen, liver and site of inoculation. Twenty-four hours after challenge counts of the pathogen (obtained with the aid of P_3 labelled yeast cells) were found to be significantly lower in the tissues of reinfected animals than in those of controls (8).

Evidence suggests that man also is more resistant to reinfection. Of 13 epidemics of histoplasmosis described (6) only three occurred in the area of greatest endemicity of histoplasmosis as shown by histoplasmin sensitivity tests. Some of the epidemics appeared in areas of low histoplasmin sensitivity i.e. areas where less than 10% of the adults reacted to histoplasmin. Also all the soldiers involved in the epidemics at Camp Crowder, Missouri, and Camp Gruber, Oklahoma, were from states with a low ratio of reaction to histoplasmin. The probability of these patients having been exposed to previous infection therefore is low. Accordingly when they were exposed to spores of the fungus in many cases severe disease followed.

Children frequently have been involved in epidemics occurring in areas with a relatively high histoplasmin sensitivity. The number of histoplasmin reactors in children have been found to be lower than in adults in the same area. Involvement of children in many of the epidemics would therefore suggest that the stricken individuals did not have previous contact with the fungus. In one epidemic at Kansas City, Missouri, skin reactions of three children and one adult converted from negative to positive (6).

A cell suspension of the yeast phase was killed either with three volumes of ethyl ether or 1:5000 mercuric (29). The cells were subsequently harvested, washed by centrifugation in distilled water and exposed to vibration in a Mickle tissue disintegrator. Subsequent washings in distilled water produced two fractions: the cell wall fraction and the protoplasmic fraction. Previous examination of the intact cell by means of electron microscopy had not indicated the presence of a capsule (17). The morphology of cell wall and protoplasmic fractions under the electron microscope was so strikingly dissimilar that differentiation was simple. The protoplasm of mercuric killed cells was released in a fine, uniform dispersed state which condition permits ready separation of cell walls by centrifugation and filtration. In contrast, the protoplasm of ether killed cells tended to contain more insoluble nondispersible gran-

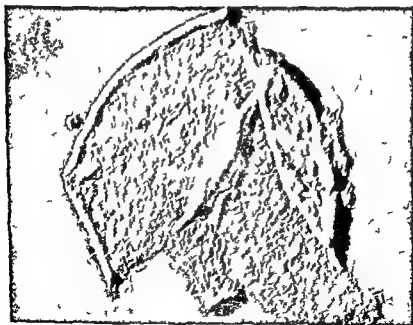


Fig 1 Cell wall of *H. capsulatum* (x85,000 reduced about 1/30 from original illustration). Portion on left shows the granular outer surface; section on lower right illustrates the fibrillar inner surface. (Photo obtained through the cooperation of Dr. E. Ribi.)

site of the inoculum possibly because of its predilection for growing in cells of the reticuloendothelial system

Living cells of the yeast phase are more effective immunizing agents than killed cells. Immunization of mice with formalin killed cells of the yeast phase produces less resistance than an equivalent number of living fungus cells. The apparently higher immunogenicity of living cells has not been satisfactorily explained but the basis of this phenomenon may again be analogous to that of immunization against tuberculosis with the BCG strain. Several possible reasons for the increased immunogenic activity of living cells of *H. capsulatum* may be presented

(a) Following introduction of fungus cells into the tissue a brief period of multiplication ensues in which the immunogenic material increases to a point where an effective immune response is produced. The number of microorganisms living or dead originally introduced was too small to produce this immune response. Experimental data have been obtained which indicate the occurrence of this limited multiplication of the fungus in non immune mice before a decrease in numbers starts (21)

(b) The living fungus cells although not actually increasing in number produce in the host tissue increased quantities of the specific immunogenic substance which is also present in the killed cells

(c) The process of killing the fungus cells partly destroys or alters the immunogenic substance

(d) Living microorganisms elaborate some complex in the host tissues which is not produced in the *in vitro* growth of cells of the yeast phase and which enhances immunity

INCREASED RESISTANCE TO CELL FRACTIONS

After the demonstration that killed cells of the yeast phase could induce increased resistance to invasion of the fungus investigations were initiated to isolate and identify purified active components which from a practical standpoint could be used in humans with greater safety. Several techniques have been used to obtain such fractions

capitin tests was crude filtrate of the broth in which either the mycelial or yeast phase was grown. This filtrate therefore may and probably does contain several antigenic substances each of which may react with its own antibody in the serum.

Similarly complement fixing antibodies do not indicate the resistance of the animal to infection. Guinea pigs whose sera contained high titers of complement fixing antibodies with whole killed yeast cells as antigens did not necessarily show increased resistance as determined by quantitative counts of the fungus cells in the spleen, liver, kidney, brain or lungs. On the other hand some guinea pigs whose sera had complement fixing antibodies in low dilutions showed striking resistance to infection.

Attempts have been made to detect neutralizing antibodies in patients with histoplasmosis (27). The technique consisted of incubating an LD_{100} or LD_0 of 48 hour old cells of the yeast phase with an equal volume of human antiserum at 37° C for 1 to 2 hours and then injecting the mixture intracerebrally into 30-day-old male mice. After injection of the LD_{100} mortality was recorded for 28 days. Seven or 14 days after injection of the LD_0 the tissues of the mice were cultured quantitatively. Some human sera showed strong neutralizing properties. Sera from one patient (F B) (16) for example showed a significant level of neutralizing antibodies after his recovery from a brief episode of histoplasmosis. A correlation however could not be found between the presence of neutralizing antibodies and the course of the disease, recoverability of the fungus from the host or presence of other antibodies. Neutralizing antibodies were not detected in sera from experimentally infected rabbits, guinea pigs or mice.

Attempts to demonstrate participation of circulating antibody in acquired resistance also included experiments wherein the ability of whole blood or serum from resistant guinea pigs to inhibit growth of the yeast phase in vitro was measured (27). Yeast cells were incubated with immune serum at 37° C for 1 to 2 hours and then plated on Sabouraud's agar for quantitative counts. The resulting growth was compared with that of cells incubated in the presence of control serum. No definite indication could be obtained that the serum of resistant guinea pigs appreciably inhibited growth of the

ules the larger of which were separated from cell walls only with difficulty. Extreme difficulty was encountered in attempts to separate the two fractions in formalin killed organisms.

The protoplasmic fraction had little or no protective powers but mice were protected against lethal intracerebral or intraperitoneal challenge by prior intraperitoneal injection of the cell wall fraction (29). This fraction was effective in quantities of about 0.5 to 5.0 mg of dried material per mouse while the optimum dose for whole cells was about 5 mg per mouse. Again the cell wall fraction apparently induced resistance sufficient to inhibit growth of the fungus and protect the life of the mouse but not to prevent growth of the pathogen completely (Fig. 1).

Guinea pigs were also injected intraperitoneally with whole cells, the cell wall fraction or the protoplasmic fraction. When the animals were subsequently challenged with a sublethal dose of live cells the guinea pigs that had received the cell wall fraction had the most resistance in that fewer fungus cells were found in their tissues. Complement fixing antibodies developed in response to all three types of antigenic fractions.

NATURE OF ACQUIRED RESISTANCE

Although immunity or resistance to infection with *H. capsulatum* is distinguished by the increased ability of the host to inhibit multiplication of the fungus, the mechanism of this fungistatic response is not known. Since the spread of many infectious processes seems to be limited by specific circulating antibodies, attempts have been made to correlate precipitating, complement fixing or neutralizing antibodies with increased resistance. Little if any success has resulted thus far.

No apparent correlation for example exists between the development of precipitins and the resistance to dissemination of disease (28). Where one patient might have high precipitin titers and a mild brief illness, another patient might have high precipitin titers and a prolonged severe illness. Precipitins appear early in the course of the disease but do not necessarily indicate the resistance of the patient to the infection. The soluble antigen used in the pre-

istic x-ray changes plus a positive skin test for delayed type of hypersensitivity indicate that this patient had had histoplasmosis but of a nonsystemic nonfatal nature. This delayed hypersensitivity to histoplasmin could be due (a) to the small amount of gamma globulin known to be present in hypogammaglobulinemic patients (b) to a stage in immunity wherein conventional antibodies have not yet been released into the circulating fluids or (c) to a qualitatively different immunologic response (25).

The theory that antibody may be involved in acquired resistance should not be completely abandoned. The techniques available for antibody determination may be inadequate for detection of small amounts of particular types of antibody. Some evidence exists for example that antibodies to different fractions of the yeast cell of *H. capsulatum* appear at different times during the course of infection (10). Also different individuals may respond to a different degree to the various antigenic components of the fungus. It may therefore be extremely difficult by existing serologic techniques to detect small amounts of the antibody associated with immunity. This antibody may also be different from the conventional kind circulating in the gamma globulin and may exist in some other part of the serum globulin. Alternatively the antibody may not be in the circulation but may exist intracellularly such as within leucocytes. It should be emphasized however that the acquired resistance is specific and that it develops along patterns and at times similar to those seen in diseases wherein circulating antibody is known to be the effective agent. However the very fact that a disease such as histoplasmosis may be chronic suggests that resistance based on humoral antibodies may be relatively inadequate.

The resistance to infection may be based on some mechanism involving cellular phagocytosis. Washed leucocytes from peritoneal cavities of immunized guinea pigs have been reported to phagocytize more fungus cells than leucocytes from normal animals. Similar quantities of mononuclear cells from resistant and control animals were exposed in Tyrode's solution to a given number of washed cells of the yeast phase in a given period of time and the number of phagocytized cells were compared (24).

fungus in vitro. The results however are complicated by uncontrollable factors and may be misleading. Accurate counting of the exact numbers of viable yeast cells is very difficult. Also the possible effect of normal serum on growth and multiplication of *H. capsulatum* has not been examined sufficiently.

The passive serum protection test may indicate what part humoral antibody has in acquired resistance. The test indicates whether serum from a resistant animal contains a specific substance or antibody which on transfer to a homologous nonimmune animal induces specific increased resistance in that animal. The application of this test to mice or guinea pigs before, during and after challenge produced no determinable change in the course of infection. Promotion of phagocytosis by antibody is also of doubtful significance since cells of *H. capsulatum* are readily and rapidly phagocytized by leucocytes of the normal non resistant animal.

Of possible importance in the relationship of antibody to acquired resistance is the reaction to infection with *H. capsulatum* of agammaglobulinemic individuals who have a strikingly poor capacity to form gamma globulin. Such individuals are especially susceptible to those bacterial diseases in which it is known that acquired immunity depends on circulating antibody. They also have a scarcity of plasma cells both before and after intensive vaccination (5). To the writer's knowledge no such agammaglobulinemic individuals are known who have shown an increased susceptibility to histoplasmosis or similar systemic fungus diseases. Also the occurrence of clinical tuberculosis in agammaglobulinemic patients has not yet been noted (16). Presumably therefore the circulating antibody in the gamma globulin plays a minor role in resistance to histoplasmosis. Alternatively the possibility exists that the tiny amount of antibody in the agammaglobulinemic person is sufficient to induce increased resistance to the disease.

Idiopathic hypogammaglobulinemia was recently described in an adult male who was found to be sensitive to skin tests with histoplasmin but not to tests with blastomycin, coccidioidin and old tuberculin (32). On three occasions complement fixing antibodies to *H. capsulatum* could not be detected. Also numerous attempts to culture the fungus were unsuccessful. Nevertheless character

of delayed shock were still absent. When the interval was increased to 12 days or more, both resistance and delayed shock were present. Delayed shock therefore can alter or nullify the beneficial effects of acquired resistance.

The influence of delayed hypersensitivity on the spread of histoplasmosis within a host was further examined (26) according to the technique of Chase for passive transfer of delayed type of hypersensitivity (1-11). Mice were injected with either live or killed cells of the yeast phase. Two weeks later these mice which possessed both delayed sensitivity and acquired resistance were killed and bled. Washed leucocytes from the blood of resistant sensitized mice were injected intraperitoneally into normal mice with the assumption that hypersensitivity of the delayed type was being transferred. Two days later these recipient mice were challenged with a sublethal dose and subsequently tissues were cultured quantitatively. Tissues such as the spleen and liver of the recipients contained greater numbers of fungal cells than those of the controls. Presumably the introduction of white blood cells from a sensitized donor not only failed to increase the resistance of the host but actually seemed to lower the resistance and thereby make the recipient's tissues more favorable for multiplication of the fungus.

NATURAL RESISTANCE

Some experimental and epidemiologic work has been reported on the innate resistance of animals and man to infection with *H. capsulatum*. For example, variation in susceptibility to intracerebral challenge was noted in a comparison of 7 strains of mice of which male dba line 1 mice were among the most susceptible (9). White Swiss male mice up to 15 weeks of age were more susceptible to experimental infection than mice 17 weeks of age or older (30). This difference may be related to the development of sexual maturity. In immature mice (35 days of age) (20) no difference in susceptibility was noted between the two sexes. Between 8 and 14 weeks of age females appeared to be more resistant than males (30).

Differences in incidence of histoplasmosis which have also been recorded among human populations (12-15) may be reflec

Cellular aspects of resistance were also examined in *in vivo* experiments using P_3 labeled *H. capsulatum* and in *in vitro* experiments with macrophages from peritoneal exudate (8). After injection of similar quantities of P_3 labelled organisms into immunized chronically infected and normal mice comparison was made of the specific radioactivity of the spleens from the three groups. After 24 hours lower counts were observed in the tissues of resistant animals. These data indicate an increased rate of destruction of phagocytized fungus cells by macrophages of resistant animals. Peritoneal phagocytes from normal and resistant mice adjusted to equal concentrations on the walls of flasks were exposed to a suspension of cells of the yeast phase. At intervals thereafter counts were made of the radioactivity of washed fungus cells from the supernatant medium. The results suggested that macrophages from immunized animals phagocytize more fungus cells than macrophages from control animals.

Evidence therefore exists that increased resistance of an animal to histoplasmosis may result from increased capacity of its macrophages to inhibit growth of the fungus. Data are however still scanty and more details are needed before definite conclusions can be drawn.

HYPERSENSITIVITY AND RESISTANCE

Increased resistance to reinfection was demonstrated when mice originally infected with sublethal doses were challenged about 2 weeks later with a lethal dose via the intracerebral, intraperitoneal or intravenous routes. During the first 48 hours after such intraperitoneal challenge with 10^9 cells in 5% mucin many mice died (23). These deaths occurring too early to be due to infection and absent from control mice not previously inoculated were attributed to delayed or tuberculin type of shock. Apparently during the 14 day interval between immunizing and challenging injections the animals developed susceptibility to death due to hypersensitivity as well as resistance to subsequent challenge. When the interval between the two infections was decreased to a single day neither resistance nor shock was observed. When the interval was 5 to 7 days resistance to lethal challenge was striking but signs

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tions of variations in the natural resistance to the disease. Fatal and nonfatal illnesses have occurred in all age groups. About one fourth (25.7%) of the fatal illnesses reported from 1905 to 1951 occurred in infants under one year of age (12). With respect to age, incidence was lowest in the group aged 10 to 19 years, but was only slightly higher in the group aged 20 to 29 years. The incidence was higher and somewhat variable in the older age groups. The lower incidence of fatal illness in the teen age group may be due to one or more of the following factors: (a) These individuals, possibly because of their development of sexual maturity, are naturally more resistant to infection than the other age groups. (b) This group contains the greatest number of individuals who have most recently recovered from clinical or subclinical disease and therefore possess the highest degree of acquired resistance. Since the greatest rate of conversion from negative to positive histoplasmin skin test frequently occurs in this age group or younger, (1) recently acquired resistance may be the basis for its low incidence of fatality. With regard to sex, there is no difference in incidence of histoplasmosis in the male and female up to the age of 10 (12, 15). Beyond age 10, males had a higher incidence of infection by a ratio of 4 to 1. This ratio parallels the situation in 8 to 14 week old mice, where males were found to be more susceptible than females (30).

VACCINATION IN MAN

There is undoubtedly a need for a safe, effective vaccine in certain areas of the country where the incidence is high and for certain high risk groups who for such reasons as age or occupation are more liable to infection. Such a vaccine preferably should consist of a highly purified component derived from killed cells. It should not be allergenic and therefore would not interfere with the histoplasmin skin reaction.

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EPIDEMIOLOGY OF HISTOPLASMOSIS

MICHAEL L. FURCROW

The study of the localization and mode of spread of the fungus *Histoplasma capsulatum* has been one of the most fascinating problems confronting epidemiologists in modern times. Here one is presented with a disease which has infected 30 million people yet was practically unknown 13 years ago. Again it is so strictly localized geographically that rates of infection may fall from 80% to 2% within a range of several hundred miles. This then cannot very well be a contagious disease nor can it be a disease with easily differentiated clinical symptomatology. All the evidence points to the fact that histoplasmosis is not a contagious disease in terms of being spread from person to person or from animals to humans. The failure of non-infected persons who contact patients to develop the disease or skin test sensitivity, lack of evidence of spread from humans to animals or vice versa, failure of spread of the disease from infected persons in areas of extremely low prevalence and the sharp localization of infection in epidemics to persons with specific exposure all support the hypothesis of non-contagion. Histoplasmosis then must be considered to be a disease of nature peculiarly localized to certain regions of the country and spread to humans from some reservoir in the soil or in nature. It is the purpose of this chapter to deal with the epidemiology of this interesting disease. This discussion will consider the subject under these headings:

1. Some Characteristics of Fungi Which are Important Epidemiologically
2. The Fungus and Its Environment
3. The Fungus and the Host

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Another characteristic of the fungi is their dependence for development upon satisfactory conditions of temperature and humidity. Weather conditions are used in both England and America to forecast the occurrence and spread of certain grain and vegetable blights. This will be further discussed under Environment.

Localized growth or geographic limitation of growth of fungi is well known. Some of the factors limiting growth are recognized while others are unknown. Thus it is well known that fungi of all kinds are prevalent in the tropics and rare in the colder climates. Here temperature and humidity seem to be limiting factors. In the case of certain tree and plant diseases the limiting factor is the presence or absence of certain insects which disperse the spores. Still other fungi are spread by the air and limited by the air currents. Very sharp geographic location has been shown by *Coccidioides immitis* and this appears to be due to certain temperature, humidity and rainfall characteristics which make up the Lower Sonoran Life Zone.

Histoplasma capsulatum has not been regarded as a particularly profuse spore bearer if one considers only the large tuberculated macrospores which are characteristic of the species. However if one considers all spores produced by the organism (2) the production of spores is enormous. If one adds to this the infectiousness of mycelial fragments (3) it is readily seen that reproduction is well provided for. The fungus *H. capsulatum* is a slow grower and even on laboratory media of good quality is outgrown by most bacteria and fungi. Whether the organism produces an antibiotic to compensate for this slow growing has not been demonstrated. In common with the other fungi it appears that the spores of *H. capsulatum* are viable for long periods. Soil tests performed even a year after the collection of the soil frequently reveals viable organisms.

There is no question that *H. capsulatum* is disseminated in the air. The infection of persons in the laboratory in which the air borne route is the most probable method of infection thoroughly demonstrates the dissemination of the organism by this route. Another characteristic of *H. capsulatum* is that the spores are viable for long periods in water as reported by Cooke (4) and Ritter (5).

The characteristic spores of *H. capsulatum* have long been

1 SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF FUNGI WHICH ARE IMPORTANT EPIDEMIOLOGICALLY

Profuse production of spores is one of the well recognized characteristics of fungi. Ingold (1) in his book refers to estimates in the billions and indeed one species of bracket fungus was estimated to liberate 30 billion spores a day for an entire 6 month period. A single colony of penicillin 2.5 cm in diameter may bear 400 million spores. In addition to profuse production of spores the development of methods of dispersal of the spores by the fungi has been extremely varied and almost purposeful. In most of the fungi the methods of dispersal of the spores consist either in the development of extremely light spores which easily float on the air, the placing of the spore organs in such a location that any current of air will waft the spores about and disperse them and even the development of special dispersal organs which more or less snap the spores out into the air thus giving them an airborne start. Indeed so common is this forcible ejection of the spores into the air among the fungi that a special name has been developed called *dehissing* to describe this process. Another characteristic of the spores is the fact that they are not harmed by drying and they are viable for extremely long periods of time. It is well known that the spores of certain plant and fruit diseases may lie dormant but viable for several years in the ground or on leaves or plants until such time as growth conditions are favorable. Spores are extremely resistant organisms especially protected from the harmful effects of nature by thick coats thus they are particularly resistant to heat, drying and other physical conditions which readily destroy the organism in its more sensitive stages or other organisms.

Still another property of the fungi is the tendency to produce antibiotics as inhibitors of other fungus or bacterial growth and some of the growth substances produced are not only inhibitory but definitely lethal to other organisms. Particularly well known antibiotics are penicillin and streptomycin. The production of these antibiotics would appear to be compensatory mechanism to protect the organism and give it a better chance to survive. It should be stressed however that the production of deterrent substances by one organism for another is widespread in nature.

abundant spores are found in the range of 1 to 5 microns in size (Fig 1). It should also be mentioned that these experiments disregarded the mycelium which was later shown by Larsh (3) to be potentially infectious. It is quite evident therefore that *H capsulatum* does produce infectious elements of the size quite capable of entering into the alveoli of the lungs and being retained there. Recent work by Larsh and his associates (3) indicates that all of the elements of *H capsulatum* that is macrospores microspores and mycelial elements are viable and potentially infectious. Thus Table I produced from Larsh's publication shows that the 3 elements are all infectious for mice or chick embryos or both. When one considers the low viability of the spores as found by these experi-

TABLE I

PERCENTAGE OF WHITE MICE AND CHICK EMBRYOS INFECTED BY SINGLE PARTICLE INOCULUM OF 3 MONTHS OLD CULTURE OF THE FELLS ISOLATE OF *HISTOPLASMA CAPSULATUM*

Units Inoculated	White Mouse		Chick Embryo	
	Infective Ratio	% Infected	Infective Ratio	% Infected
Non-germinated tuberculated macroconidia	4/45	8.2	0/40	.0
Non-germinated microconidia	1/47	2.1	3/4	7.1
Germinated tuberculated macroconidia	3/19	6.2	1/51	1.9
Germinated microconidia	1/19	5.3	3/51	5.9
Non-branching mycelial fragments	0/90	0	4/98	14.3
Total	9/199	5.0	17/112	8.0

(Courtesy Larsh et al. Proc Soc Exper Biol & Med 93 19 8)

$$x/n = \frac{\text{No. of Animals Infected}}{\text{No. of Animals Inoculated}}$$

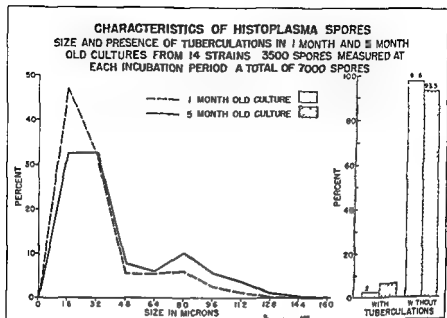


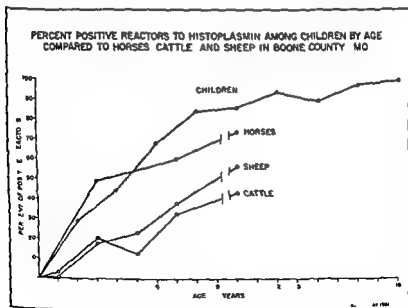
Fig 1

known to be large and tuberculated indeed the original description of DeMonbreun clearly illustrates the size variation of the macrospores from 5 to 15 microns (6). However as has also been pointed out by DeMonbreun (6) the tuberculated macrospores are not the only spores there are also both round and pear shape macrospores which are non tuberculated. In addition to the microspores which are sometimes tuberculated and more often non tuberculated there is the mycelium itself which fragments and disseminates when dry.

When one considers the characteristic macroconidia which are so large one wonders how the spores might enter the respiratory tract. It has been shown by Brown *et al* (7) that particles of the size of 5 microns or more are usually filtered out of the air before penetrating beyond the larger bronchi. This would suggest that the macrospores of *H. capsulatum* probably are not the infectious agents in man or animals. However in the previously recorded experiments of our laboratory by Cozad *et al* (8) and Helmbricht and Larsh (2) it is amply evident that the macrospores make up only a small portion of the spores of *H. capsulatum* and that the most

Most of the systemic fungi have a wide host range infecting both men and animals. No infections of plants by *Histoplasma* have been demonstrated but in addition to man a wide variety of animals have been infected either naturally or artificially. This subject is covered in the chapter on animal infection. Natural infection seems to be most common among dogs and cats as reported by Emmons (11) and among cattle, horses and sheep (12). Fig. 3 compares infection rates in cattle, horses and sheep with children in the same county. It is seen that the rates are quite similar on an age specific basis. Also as seen in Fig. 1 these rates vary with the rates in the residents in the same area. Thus the rates in Tennessee, Iowa, Kansas and Missouri among cattle and among humans in the same county tend to resemble each other very markedly. These data will be commented on later in regard to the theories of the spread of infection.

As discussed in the chapter on Morphology and Physiology *H. capsulatum* grows in two phases depending upon the temperature and environment. The mycelial phase is extremely resistant



MICE INFECTED INTRANASALLY WITH HISTOPLASMA
SPORES RESULTS OF CULTURES OF ORGANS AND
BLOOD BY SIZE OF INOCULUM

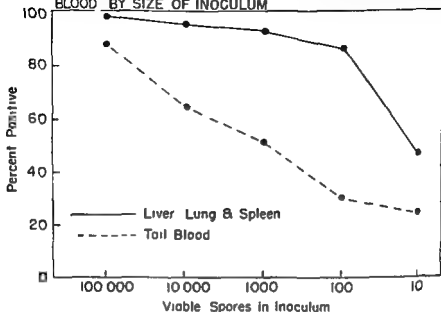


Fig 2

ments one wonders how persons ever become infected. However it must be remembered that the viability in human beings may be quite different from the viability on laboratory media and experiments in this laboratory by Grayston and Altman (9) suggest that most of the spores are infectious if placed in the lungs under proper environment. Fig 2 reproduced from unpublished work of Grayston and Altman shows that the spores are readily infectious to mice even in relatively small doses. Also Ajello (10) has shown that under the conditions of his experiments 100% of the tuberculated macroconidia were infectious for mice when implanted intraperitoneally accompanied by the agar plug upon which the organisms were growing. These seemingly contradictory laboratory findings can probably best be explained by saying that we are not yet fully acquainted with the infectiousness of the spores and that it probably varies under different conditions being fairly low on artificial media but from all appearances much higher in human or animal hosts.

histoplasmosis which occurred in a silo in Northern Indiana. In 1932 Zeidberg (15) and his co-workers first called attention to the frequency of isolation in chicken yards and about chicken houses and the infrequency of isolation from any other areas about the farm. Table II reproduced from their publication (16) shows the results of 319 samples collected in Tennessee. They also called attention to the fact that sheltered samples were more commonly positive than open samples. Emmons (17) and Ajello (18) have also reported extensive soil sampling and isolations. In Table III is shown the percentage of isolations from 1024 soils studied at this Station by the type of natural environment from which soil collections were made. It is evident that the frequency of isolation is not only related to the type of environment but to the degree of histoplasmin sensitivity in the general area. The highest frequency of isolation (27%) was obtained from chicken coops in the high area of histoplasmin sensitivity. However as shown in Table IV the

TABLE II

RESULTS OF EXAMINATIONS OF SOIL SAMPLES COLLECTED FROM 80 PRE-TESTS
BY SOURCE OF SAMPLE WILLIAMSON COUNTY, TENNESSEE
JULY 1930-OCTOBER 1931

Source of Sample	Number of Samples	Histoplasma capsulatum isolated	
		Number	Per Cent
Total	319	11	3.2
Under house	58	4	6.9
Near house	103	0	
Inside chicken house	47	5	10.6
Chicken yard coop, etc.	18	"	11.1
Barn yard	30	0	
Inside barn	9	0	
Bank of water course	0	0	
In open	78	0	
Other	6	0	

(Courtesy L. D. Zeidberg M.D. Pub. Health Monograph No. 55 1956)

PERCENT OF POSITIVE REACTORS TO HISTOPLASMIN BY AGE AMONG CHILDREN COMPARED TO CATTLE, ALL LIFE TIME RESIDENTS OF SHAWNEE COUNTY, KANSAS, BOONE COUNTY, MISSOURI, JACKSON COUNTY, IOWA & WILLIAMSON COUNTY, TENNESSEE

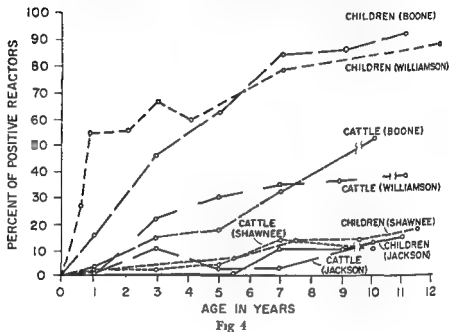


Fig 4

to drying and heat and other physically unfavorable environments while the yeast phase is extremely susceptible to changes in environment readily being killed by drying freezing and other physical means. The moist capsule of the yeast combined with its small size of 2 to 4 microns probably account for its low resistance to unfavorable conditions.

■ THE FUNGUS AND ITS ENVIRONMENT

Knowledge of the growth of *H. capsulatum* in nature dates from the first isolation by Emmons (13) in 1949 when he isolated the organisms from the soil about a rodent burrow under a chicken coop. In 1951 Grayston, Loosli and Alexander (14) reported the first isolation of the organism in connection with an epidemic of

histoplasmosis which occurred in a silo in Northern Indiana. In 1932 Zeidberg (15) and his co-workers first called attention to the frequency of isolation in chicken yards and about chicken houses and the infrequency of isolation from any other areas about the farm. Table II reproduced from their publication (16) shows the results of 319 samples collected in Tennessee. They also called attention to the fact that sheltered samples were more commonly positive than open samples. Emmons (17) and Ajello (18) have also reported extensive soil sampling and isolations. In Table III is shown the percentage of isolations from 1024 soils studied at this Station by the type of natural environment from which soil collections were made. It is evident that the frequency of isolation is not only related to the type of environment but to the degree of histoplasmin sensitivity in the general area. The highest frequency of isolation (27%) was obtained from chicken coops in the high area of histoplasmin sensitivity. However as shown in Table IV the

TABLE II

RESULTS OF EXAMINATIONS OF SOIL SAMPLES COLLECTED FROM 8¹ 1 BY MILES
BY SOURCE OF SAMPLE, WILLIAMSON COUNTY, TENNESSEE
JULY 1930-OCTOBER 1931

Source of Sample	Number of Samples	<i>Histoplasma</i> <i>capsulatum</i> isolate	
		Number	Per Cent
Total	319	11	3.4
Under house	8	4	50
Near house	103	0	
Inside chicken house	47		10.6
Chicken yard, coop, etc.	18	2	11.1
Barn yard	0	0	
Inside barn	9	0	
Bank of water course	0	0	
In open	23	0	
Other	11	11	

(Courtesy L. D. Zeidberg M.D. Public Health Reports 51: 133)

TABLE III
PERCENTAGE OF SOIL ISOLATIONS BY TYPE OF NATURAL ENVIRONMENT
FROM WHICH COLLECTIONS WERE MADE (1021 SAMPLES)

<i>Histoplasma</i> Sensitivity	Collection Site				
	Covered Moist Caves Silos Storm Cellars	Open Moist Woods Stumps River Banks	Around Houses	Around Barns Except Chicken Coops	Around Chicken Coops
0-10	0	0	0	3	0*
10-30	40	6	0	2	0
30-50	6		3	10	
50-70	3	7	1	1	27
All	3	3	1	4	16
20 soils or less tested					

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE OF SOIL ISOLATIONS BY INFECTIOUS HISTORY OF THE
SITE OF COLLECTION (1071 SAMPLES)

Collection Site	<i>H. staph.</i> in 5 isolates				
	0-10	10-35	45-55	70-90	All
Random	0	4		6	3
Sites of epidemic	7	8	7	9	12
Associated with cases		0	6	15	9
Total all soil collected anywhere	1	5	7	7	5

frequency of isolation differs not only with the degree of histoplasmin sensitivity but also with the infectious history of the environment from which the soil collections were made. The frequency of isolations among the random collections is only about 3% whereas among soils collected from sites of epidemics or their immediate neighborhood it is 4 times as high or 12%. These two tables illustrate 3 points: first, what appears to be a relationship of geography with a frequency of isolation; second, the fact that isolations are more frequent around the sites where epidemics or cases have occurred; and third, that the natural environment plays a considerable part in the frequency of isolation with a definite relationship being shown between chickens and the frequency of chicken habitation to the frequency of isolations. In our experience the open and closed areas have made very little difference in the frequency of isolation although few if any isolations are made from areas directly exposed to sunlight.

As mentioned before, one of the characteristics of fungus infections is their geographic localization. Indeed, this is one of the most distinguishing characteristics of histoplasmosis. This variation

in geographic prevalence is best brought out by skin test sensitivity surveys (see chapter on Skin Test Sensitivity (19). It can be said however that there are marked geographic variations in the frequency of reactions and that in general the most highly endemic area is fairly sharply localized to the Central river valleys of the United States. The prevalence of high rates of infection along the river valleys of the Ohio, Missouri and Mississippi rivers has long been cause for comment; indeed this geographic prevalence along the river valleys may be carried to many of the river valleys of the world. Infection has been demonstrated in the Amazon, La Plata and Orinoco river valleys in South America, along the Congo river and Niger river in Africa, and along the Irrawaddy river in Burma. Even in the United States when one looks carefully at the sensitivity maps one finds that the prevalence of sensitivity outside of the very high areas of sensitivity may still be traced to river valleys such as the Lake Champlain and St. Lawrence river valleys in New York State, the Susquehanna river valley in Pennsylvania, the Potomac river valley in Maryland and Virginia, and the Rio Grande and Pecos river valleys in Texas. Indeed the extension of sensitivity across the Appalachian Mountains may even be found to occur in the Broad river valley in the North Carolina and Tennessee area. In view of this widespread correlation of *Histoplasma* with the river valley areas, one might suspect that the infection would occur along the Mekong in Indo China and Cambodia, the Ping river in Thailand, the Indus and Ganges river basins in India, and the Yangtze and Yellow river basins in China. Most infections with *H. capsulatum* have been reported from the area of 45 degrees north to 30 degrees south of the equator.

There are several theories proposed to explain this geographical limitation, one of them being that the sensitivity coincides with a certain life zone. Maddy (20) has shown a distinct overlapping of the lower Sonoran Life Zone with the distribution of *Coccidioides* infection. With *Histoplasma* no such life zone phenomenon could be demonstrated, since the area of high infection overlaps several life zones.

Another theory is that soil groups are the limiting factors in the geographic prevalence of the disease. The leading proponent of

GEOGRAPHIC VARIATIONS IN HISTOPLASMIN SENSITIVITY



■ RED-YELLOW PODZOLIC SOIL

STU CE ADAP ED 1 ON SO LS AND MEA YE BOOK OF ON CU TU C 3 6 BY PERM SS ON

FIG 2 Distribution of red yellow pod zolic soil in the United States

Fig 5

this theory is Zeidberg (21) who has postulated that the distribution of red yellow podzolic soil conforms fairly well with the distribution of *H. capsulatum*. The distribution of red yellow podzolic soil in the United States is shown in Fig 5 and in the world in Fig 6 (See chapter on Skin Test Sensitivity for world distribution of histoplasmin sensitivity). There is indeed considerable correlation between the skin sensitivity and this particular soil group but there are many areas in which this soil occurs and histoplasmosis does not occur and vice versa. Positive soils have shown higher acidity, organic content and moisture holding capacity than negative soils (22) but these findings again only lead us back to contamination of these soils with chicken droppings.

Emmons (23) originally proposed a theory similar to that which he had proposed for *Coccidioides*; namely, that the organism was endemic among certain animals whose geographic distribution limited the spread of infection. Emmons has isolated the organism from numerous wild and domestic animals both in and outside of

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disease by birds since it appears the infection tapers off both at the extreme lower end of the Mississippi Valley in Louisiana and at the upper end of the Missouri Mississippi and Ohio valleys. Also tests of wild birds for infection by culture or serology have been uniformly negative (24-25).

A theory of localization to river valleys by the presence of water (26) has been advanced. Identification of the organism from water by Cordon (27) and determinations of its viability in water by both Ritter (5) and Cooke (1) as mentioned previously require water to be considered. However the decrease in infection at both the upper and lower ends of the river valleys and the lack of direct connection to water are opposed to this. In Kansas City Chicago and Cleveland for example rates of infection in the cities located on the waterfront are lower than in their surrounding rural areas.

Another theory of interest regarding the localization has to do with the possible growth of the organism as a parasite on certain plants whose distribution might be limited to the high areas of sensitivity. Experiments by Furcolow and Hart (28) on certain specimens of plants brought into the laboratory and inoculated artificially with *H. capsulatum* led to the conclusion that the temperature and humidity conditions in the local area were more important to the growth of *Histoplasma* than was the substrate upon which it was growing. Thus when a specimen of plant was put in a petri dish and inoculated and the petri dish was kept too wet the fungus would not grow. On the other hand if it was kept too dry the fungus would not grow. However if damp filter paper was kept in the petri dish and the petri dish was kept at room temperature the growth on the specimen was quite satisfactory as illustrated in Fig. 7.

The control of the growth of fungi by humidity and temperature has been commented upon. The preference of the fungi for moist humid conditions and warmer temperatures is well known and illustrated by the extremely frequent occurrence of fungi under natural conditions more particularly in the tropics. The growth of *Histoplasma* does seem to be affected by certain temperature and humidity conditions. In Fig. 8 is shown the extremely limited conditions under which *H. capsulatum* will grow in soil in the

GEOGRAPHIC VARIATIONS IN HISTOPLASMIN SENSITIVITY

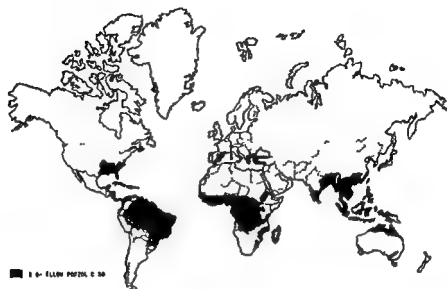


FIG. 6

the endemic area (see chapter on Natural Reservoirs). Whether animals serve as the reservoir must await further study but the similarity of skin test rates in animals and humans in the same area as mentioned earlier does not support this theory.

Another interesting theory relates to the possibility of wild birds being important in the localization of infection to the high sensitivity area. However the very fact that many birds migrate has made it difficult to accept the importance of birds to so limited an infection. It is important to remark however that more than half of the epidemics have been associated with sites in which excreta of either chickens, pigeons, or bats was involved. Indeed in 88 per cent of the epidemics either rural environment or bird excreta was definitely involved. Another interesting thought in regard to bird migration is that the main migratory pathways of the birds in the Central United States are along the Mississippi valley where the prevalence is high. Many of these birds migrate to the Amazon Valley of Brazil where infection is also known to be endemic. However the fact that the infection is not more widely spread up and down the Mississippi valley is against the spread of the

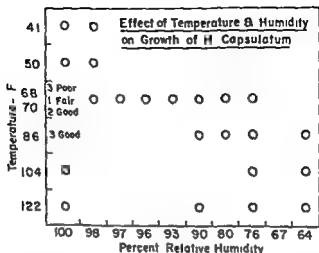


Fig 8

—Percentage of Children under 15 Years of Age Positive to Histoplasmin according to Dampness of Environment by Age Group Williamson County Tennessee 1946

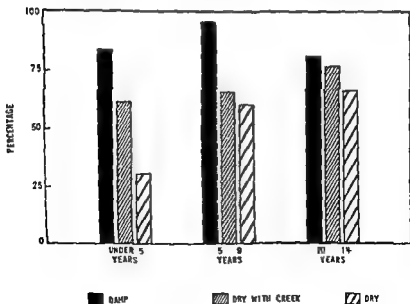


Fig 9



Fig. 7

laboratory. It is seen that no growth took place in less than 100% relative humidity and that growth was also strictly controlled by temperature extending only in the range from about 68 to 86°. Zeidberg *et al* (29) had shown earlier a definite relationship between the dampness of the environment and the frequency of positive histoplasmin skin test reactors (Fig. 9). Consideration of these factors in reviewing the evidence previously reported of the frequency of finding the organism in chicken coops and environments where chickens were living suggested either that chickens were an important source of the organism or that they furnished an environment which was suitable for the growth of the organism.

Extensive investigations of the possible role of chickens in histoplasmosis have all been uniformly negative. Emmons (17), Zeid

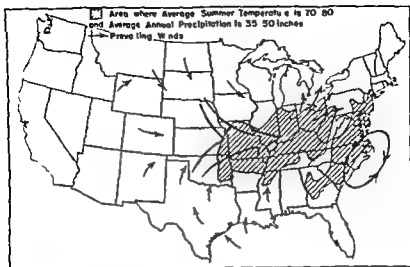


Fig 11

to be some proof of the prevalence of satisfactory environmental conditions in chicken coops

It is interesting that studies of weather bureau records reveal some interesting information regarding the temperature and humidity in the United States and the distribution of histoplasmin sensitivity. In Fig 10 is shown the frequency of satisfactory days fulfilling certain temperature and humidity requirements and based on weather bureau records for the year 1950 (31). This shows that in the region of South Missouri and Arkansas the frequency of satisfactory days is highest and that this frequency decreases as one moves away from this area. Another such calculation based on the 50 year records of the Weather Bureau is shown in Fig 11 which indicates the areas in the United States which certain conditions of temperature and humidity delimit. It is noted that west of the Appalachian mountains the area in general approaches the highest histoplasmin sensitivity area. East of the Appalachian mountains there appears to be an area of satisfactory conditions in most of which *H capsulatum* apparently does not frequently grow. However in the north part in the area around Washington D C and up into Maryland Pennsylvania and Delaware recent evidence

berg *et al* (15) Menges and Haberman (30) Schwarz *et al* (25) and others have participated in these studies. Not only are skin test positive chickens rare in known infected environments but autopsy of such chickens fails to reveal the organism. Similarly most chickens artificially infected by a variety of routes not only do not become ill but are negative to culture on autopsy. Finally cultures of the feces of these artificially infected chickens have been uniformly negative. It does not seem therefore that chickens are either infected or carriers of the fungus. It is still possible and indeed likely that the chickens are only indirectly concerned in that chicken coops furnish a satisfactory environment for the organism to grow. This is especially so when one remembers that the moist humid conditions ordinarily prevalent in chicken coops, pigeon lofts and other such bird harborage which one could easily imagine could be ideal for the growth of the fungus. Studies by Becker (31) have shown adequate temperature and humidity conditions for growth of *Histoplasma* occurred in 2 chicken coops in Iowa for 10 to 20 days a month during 7 months beginning May 1955. Thus there appears

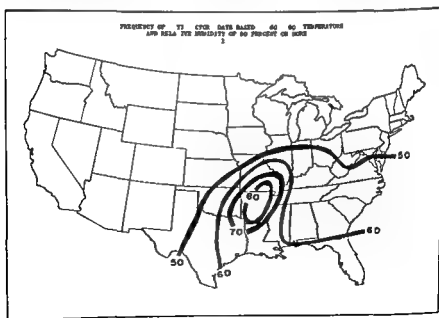


Fig 10

HISTOPLASMIN REACTORS

BY TOWNSHIPS

Minnesota 1954-1957

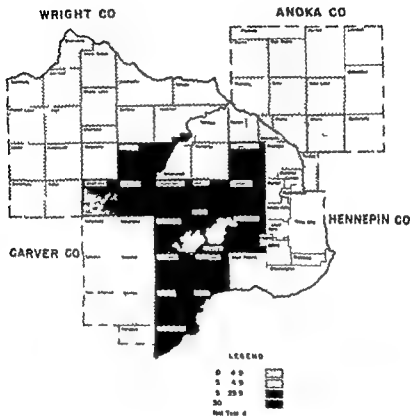


Fig 12

mal to each other. Similar variations in degrees of prevalence in a relatively small area are found in Jackson County, Iowa (Fig 13). Here it is seen that the rates in the Eastern part of the county along the Mississippi river are less than half of the rates in the westward more interior parts of this country (12). The presence of epidemics in various parts of the country remote from the areas of high sensi-

does indicate that histoplasmosis exists with a fair degree of frequency (32-33-34). Also in Georgia (35-36) and in North Carolina (37) areas of prevalence of infection have recently been demonstrated. It is thus evident that even with the crude figures now available some correlation between weather conditions and the prevalence of the fungus in the environment can be demonstrated. In this figure the direction of the prevailing winds is indicated and might explain the infrequency of dispersion of the fungus spores across the Appalachian mountains. The finding of small foci of infection at infrequent intervals in the areas of low sensitivity to the north (Minnesota and Iowa) and to the north east of the high area (Lake Champlain area) (38) also suggests less frequent spore dispersion over these areas which agrees with frequency of the prevailing winds from the high area. Other explanations are possible for these infrequent foci such as less favorable general environmental conditions in these areas or indeed many others.

The presence of the prevailing winds actually brings to mind another question and that is how is the disease spread about in nature? There are three theories in this regard the first being that mentioned above namely spread by the prevailing winds the second and earlier theory of Berdenkopf and Loosli (39) which proposed that the spores are carried by floods along the river valleys and then after recession of the flood waters the organism is disseminated by the wind from the dried up floodland. Still another theory is that of Manos (40) who postulated that tornadoes were important in dispersing the organism about in nature. This will be discussed when the infection of persons is discussed.

The question whether *H. capsulatum* is limited in its natural habitat to the areas where histoplasmin sensitivity in humans is high or whether it is dispersed throughout wider areas is indeed fascinating. It is quite evident from studies in widely scattered parts of the country that the organism is present in certain areas even of general low sensitivity (35) but that its prevalence is distinctly of a localized nature and not generalized as it is in the highly endemic areas. Fig. 12 shows the distribution of sensitivity in townships about the city of Minneapolis (41). It is quite evident that the sensitivity varies from less than 5% to more than 30% within areas very prox-

THE TULSA TORNADO

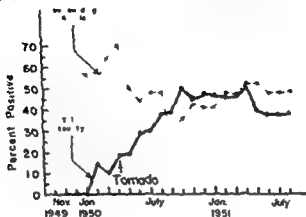


Fig. 15

tivity also leads one to suspect that the prevalence of the disease is not localized to the high areas (Fig. 14) (13).

The isolation by *Finnons* of *Histoplasma* (35) from skunks in Georgia in areas where the sensitivity among humans is very low also supports the evidence that the organism may be widely distributed in nature perhaps with lower frequency. *Aronson's* (36) work in Georgia also supports this.

The problem of the limitation or dissemination of the fungus throughout the environment may also be approached by consideration of where people get infected. The basic question here is whether people become infected by the fungus blowing about generally through the air or whether they become infected by visits to or contacts with local sources where the fungus is growing. This first method of infection is commonly regarded to be that which occurs in coccidioidomycosis where wind blown dust contaminated with spores is regarded as the method of infection and it is considered that this infection can be acquired at any place throughout the broad expanse of the endemic area. With histoplasmosis this theory is by no means proved. The main exponent of generalized infection has been *Manos* who has presented evidence that tornadoes can infect people. This problem was first studied by follow-

HISTOPLASMIN SENSITIVITY IN JACKSON COUNTY IOWA

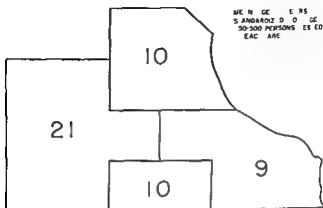


Fig 13

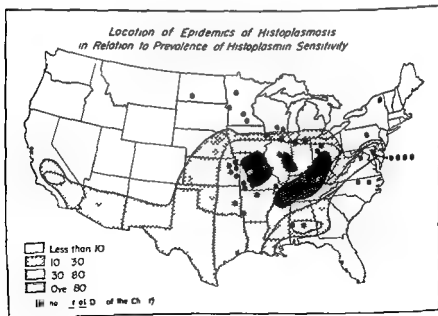


Fig 14

THE TULSA TORNADO

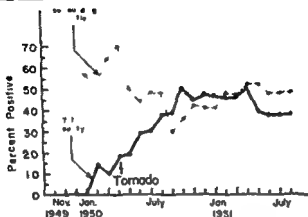


Fig 15

tivity also leads one to suspect that the prevalence of the disease is not localized to the high areas (Fig 14) (13)

The isolation by Emmons of *Histoplasma* (35) from skunks in Georgia in areas where the sensitivity among humans is very low also supports the evidence that the organism may be widely distributed in nature perhaps with lower frequency. Aronson's (36) work in Georgia also supports this.

The problem of the limitation or dissemination of the fungus throughout the environment may also be approached by consideration of where people get infected. The basic question here is whether people become infected by the fungus blowing about generally through the air or whether they become infected by visits to or contacts with local sources where the fungus is growing. This first method of infection is commonly regarded to be that which occurs in coccidioidomycosis where wind blown dust contaminated with spores is regarded as the method of infection and it is considered that this infection can be acquired at any place throughout the broad expanse of the endemic area. With histoplasmosis this theory is by no means proved. The main exponent of generalized infection has been Manos who has presented evidence that tornadoes can infect people. This problem was first studied by follow-

ing the sensitivity to histoplasmin of navy recruits from an area where a tornado occurred prior to and after the tornado. In Fig 15 is shown histoplasmin sensitivity among Navy recruits from the area of Tulsa Oklahoma from November 1949 through July 1951. The groups compared are from Tulsa county and from the surrounding counties. A tornado occurred in Tulsa county in April 1950. It is seen that the sensitivity of the men from the surrounding counties is considerably higher than that in Tulsa which is not unexpected since rural sensitivity has generally been shown to be higher than urban (40). In Tulsa county the sensitivity in general is rather low but starts to rise about February 1950 2 months before the tornado. This rise continues uninterrupted until about 6 months after the tornado after which the sensitivity for the Tulsa recruits is the same as that for the surrounding counties.

Following these studies tests were performed in three counties in Mississippi following a tornado in February 1955. Histoplasmin tests were performed in various schools in the three counties in February immediately following the tornado and 9 months later in November of 1955. In Fig 16 is shown the resulting comparisons of the increase in percentage of reactors in various schools in these counties in the 9 months following the tornado. It will be noted that there was a marked increase in all of the schools in Tunica county whereas in De Soto and Tate counties there was little or no increase in sensitivity. It does seem peculiar that if the increase in sensitivity in Tunica county was associated with the

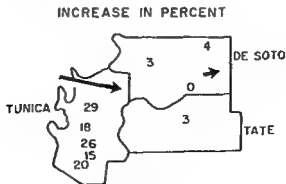


Fig 16

tornado there was not a similar increase in the other counties since as is evident from the arrows the tornado pursued a course through both areas. It is quite apparent that this is not yet acceptable as definite evidence of infection by tornadoes.

The second theory postulates that people are infected from point sources where they come in contact with some focus of growth of the fungus such as a chicken coop or other suitable place. Some of the material already presented indicated that the organism is not widely distributed in nature but localized to point sources particularly point sources associated with chickens. A still more important bit of evidence in this regard is the occurrence of the epidemics. As was shown in Fig. 11 more than 10 epidemics have now been reported. The epidemics do not necessarily occur in high histoplasmin areas but almost all have shown definitely to be associated with the presence of *H. capsulatum* at a point source. The evidence indicates that these persons are infected by coming in contact with a point source where the organism is growing. The illness in the epidemics has often been severe although investigation often brings cases of mild infection to light. It has been shown quite clearly (14) that the number of lung lesions and degree of illness can be correlated with the degree of exposure at the point source and presumably with the number of organisms inhaled. This suggests that perhaps many or most of the casual infections are actually epidemics in miniature with the persons being exposed at the point source to varying degrees of contamination and developing varying degrees of pulmonary infiltration and illness. Study of certain epidemics in particular (15) shows that the x-ray pictures in a given epidemic may vary from extensive widespread infiltrations to occasional nodular densities or enlargement of the hilar lymph nodes. It is quite possible therefore that infection among persons even in the highly endemic area occurs only among persons who are exposed to local spots where the fungus is growing such as chicken coops, pigeon lofts, etc.

With this thought in mind it might be well to view some of the evidence collected by questionnaire from the Kansas City studies (16) dealing with the source of infection of more than 6 000 children residing in Kansas City and attending the kindergarten or first

ing the sensitivity to histoplasmin of navy recruits from an area where a tornado occurred prior to and after the tornado. In Fig 15 is shown histoplasmin sensitivity among Navy recruits from the area of Tulsa Oklahoma from November 1949 through July 1951. The groups compared are from Tulsa county and from the surrounding counties. A tornado occurred in Tulsa county in April 1950. It is seen that the sensitivity of the men from the surrounding counties is considerably higher than that in Tulsa which is not unexpected since rural sensitivity has generally been shown to be higher than urban (40). In Tulsa county the sensitivity is generally rather low but starts to rise about February 1950 2 months before the tornado. This rise continues uninterrupted until about 6 months after the tornado after which the sensitivity for the Tulsa recruits is the same as that for the surrounding counties.

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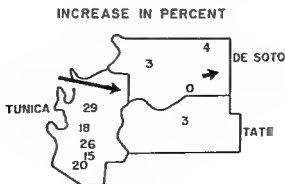
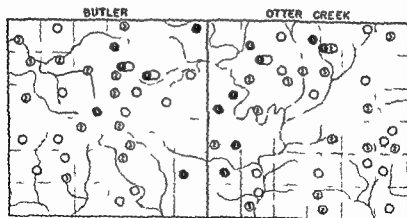


Fig 16

whereas among those who were most distant from rural areas only 3.4% showed such positive reactions. This again suggests that the proximity to rural environment increases the chances of exposure to the fungus. Another point of interest in regard to this population of city dwellers is that the rates of reaction among those denying visits to farms or living on farms was much higher in the older sections of the city than in the new sections. Whether this relates to the age of the dwelling, the possible deterioration of the wood caused by fungi, or the proximity of this section of the city to the railroad yards and other known sources of bird harborages remains in question. That this might be the case was supported by figures obtained from another study on an army post (17) in which the acquisition of sensitivity among children previously negative to histoplasmin was studied. Among these negative children who lived in homes where pigeons lived on the roof of the house 5% showed infection compared to 2.2% of infections among children who lived in houses where no such pigeon haborage was noted. Additional evidence of the relationship of increase in sensitivity with exposure to pigeons is shown in the epidemics (43). These



- ① ONE CHILD IN HOUSEHOLD HISTOPLASMIN POSITIVE
 ② TWO CHILDREN IN HOUSEHOLD BOTH HISTOPLASMIN NEGATIVE
 ③ THREE CHILDREN IN HOUSEHOLD ONE IS POSITIVE, TWO NEGATIVE

Detailed map of the two northernmost townships of the western area of figure 2 showing histoplasmin reactions in all children 1 to 14 years of age. Each of the 15 points represents a household where one or more children were tested.

Fig. III

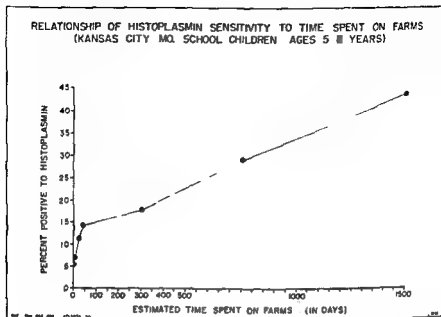


Fig 17

grade. It is quite obvious that among such children many will have either lived or visited on farms and actually in Fig. 17 the calculation has been made of the estimated number of days spent on the farm in relation to histoplasmin sensitivity among these city school children. Among this group infection could not be traced to any specific animal contact on the farm. This perhaps is not unexpected since one would be surprised if children who had visited on farms would remember any specific contact with chickens or other animals. However it is quite likely that such contact occurred even though denied.

It was noted that almost 2700 children denied ever living or visiting on a farm and 111 or 5.1% of these were found to be positive to histoplasmin. Studies were instituted as to where these children might have contracted their infection. It was extremely interesting to compare the proximity to rural areas of the schools which these children attended. When those 10 schools most proximal to rural areas were compared with the 10 schools most distant from rural areas it was found that among the schools proximal to rural areas 7% of the children showed histoplasmin reactions

the skin test rates in the same city (23) reveals that apparently lesions were found with equal frequency with skin test sensitivity. In other words almost every skin test positive person had demonstrable pulmonary lesion. This is indeed strong evidence of respiratory infection.

Similarly although mucocutaneous lesions are not at all uncommon in histoplasmosis it is usually found that such lesions are secondary accompanying blood borne dissemination of the organism and not primary. That most patients are infected by the airborne route is supported by the epidemics where the air borne inhalation of spores was related to activities at the point source. The duration and degree of exposure was correlated to the severity of illness and the frequency of lung lesions. Similarly among laboratory personnel who worked with the fungus it has been found that the infections are very common (24) although usually of a more mild degree. It should also be mentioned that the organism has been isolated from the air in areas where epidemic cases had occurred (12). Animal experimentation clearly indicates that the most infectious route for *Histoplasma capsulatum* is via the respiratory tract. Mice infected with as few as 10 spores regularly showed lesions and disease in experiments performed by Griggson and others in our laboratory (9).

It is interesting to make comparisons of the pathogenicity of the various fungus infections and tuberculosis. It is important to realize that the rate of calcification found in the lung by x ray with *Histoplasma* infection is higher than that of any other known infection. This is demonstrated by comparing the rate of the finding of calcified lesions in persons positive to histoplasmin with the rates in persons positive to coccidioidin or tuberculin: About one third of the histoplasmin reactors will have calcification (56-57) compared to 14% of the coccidioidin reactors (58) and 10% of the tuberculin reactors (56). It is also interesting to note that in contrast to *Coccidioides* there is more of a problem of recurrent infection in the older age groups although still less than with tuberculosis.

Another point of interest might be whether most infections are single or multiple. Actually this matter has not been intensively studied but judging from x rays of many surveys in schools and

studies suggest that exposure to point sources most often in rural environments is the most important source of infection and that little if any infection is produced by widespread blowing of the spores

These studies are further supported by the demonstration of the localized distribution of infection in various counties in different parts of the country where sensitivity is low. An example of this type of relationship is shown in Fig 18 (also see Fig 13) based on skin testing carried out in the schools of Jackson County Iowa where the spotty distribution of positives is clearly evident. It is seen that sometimes a family with three or four positive reactors may reside within a mile of a family with three or four negative reactors. This is supported by other studies (Sachs *et al* 48 Zeidberg *et al*, 15). The evidence suggests that in areas of low sensitivity at least the distribution of the organism is extremely localized and appears to be associated with point sources rather than generalized distribution. This suggests that people get infected by coming in contact with these localized areas of fungus proliferation.

3 THE FUNGUS AND THE HOST

The route of infection in histoplasmosis could be either oral or respiratory or both. The oral route has been suggested by the finding of the organisms in water (27) the occasional occurrence of gastro intestinal cases especially in children (19) and the finding of splenic calcification in many cases. Indeed Straub and Schwarz (50) showed that 14% of spleens showed calcification in Cincinnati compared to 3% in New York and 2% in Rotterdam. However Grayston in our laboratory was unable to infect mice by gavage whereas intranasal infection was common (9). Cole has had the same experience with dogs (51). The second point against oral infection is the frequency of lung lesions and their variety which suggests that the lesions are not blood borne but that the portal of entry is directly into the lungs. Indeed Straub and Schwarz (52) have demonstrated by careful pathologic studies that calcified pulmonary lesions of a size that could be detected at autopsy were found in three fourths of the lungs examined in Cincinnati. Comparing these rates with

In regard to pathogenicity of the organism it appears from the evidence presented by Schwartz that the organism in general after invading the lungs tends to become disseminated. This is supported by the frequent finding of calcifications in the spleen among persons otherwise healthy who have positive histoplasmin skin tests. However, the finding of lung calcifications or evidence of infection accompanying the splenic calcification points toward a pulmonary source of entry rather than gastrointestinal.

When one considers the epidemiologic implications of the frequency of disease by sex, age, race and year of recognition the remarkable strides of recent years become apparent. Fig. 19 shows the number of cases reported through the years beginning in 1905. The data on cases prior to 1950 was adapted from Loosli (60). However, since 1950 only cases were accepted which had positive results by culture or pathologic examination.

Prior to 1935 it is well known only a few cases were reported. The first 3 cases of Darling (1905 and 1906) were followed by a gap of about 20 years until the first case in America was reported in Minnesota by Riley and Watson (61). In the following 10 years only 10 cases were reported. All the cases reported until 1935 were fatal.

Age Distribution of 490 Reported Proved Cases of Histoplasmosis
1905-1958

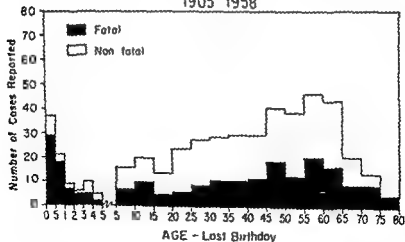


Fig. 20

among young persons it is seen that many infections are single with the resultant either a nodule in the lung or Ghon complex with a nodule in the lung and enlargement of the hilar lymph nodes. On the other hand more than one primary lesion is not at all uncommon and indeed it is our impression that multiple lesions are much more common than with either tuberculosis or coccidioidomycosis. Reinfection unquestionably seems to be the explanation for the chronic cavity lesions with apical location found among older persons with increasing frequency. Approximately 100 cases have now been discovered in one sanatorium in Missouri (59). Cases are being reported from sanatoria throughout the country so that it is unquestionably true that cases of this type are common and have been previously misdiagnosed as tuberculosis.

Distribution of 495 Reported Proved Cases of
Histoplasmosis by Year of Report
1905-1958*

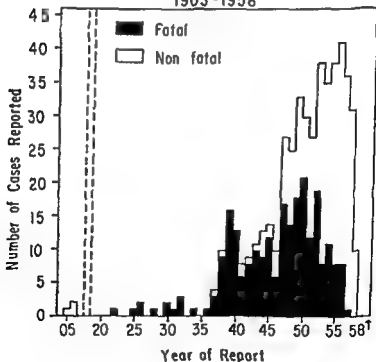


Fig 19

there is a different causation for these two peaks since the younger peak is probably due to fatalities associated with first infection while the latter peak is probably due to endogenous reinfection.

In Table V are shown the reported cases by race and sex as well as by place of residence of the patient. It is seen that 121 of 491 cases were females or 25% and only 13 were non white. Of the 491 cases only 50 or 10% were from foreign countries. It is also seen that 80% of the United States cases and 86% of the foreign cases were over 10 years of age. It is unquestionable that there are other areas of the world where histoplasmosis is extremely prevalent. It appears also that the low percentage of reports from the foreign literature does not represent absence of cases in many areas but failure of recognition and reporting. It is easy to predict not only increasing recognition of the disease in this country but in many foreign countries as knowledge of this most elusive fungus infection becomes more widespread.

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From 1935 through 1957 there has been a steady although fluctuating increase in the number of cases. In 1937 there was seen the first non fatal case and the ratio of fatal to non fatal has continued to increase through the years. In the last 5 years 156 cases have been reported of which 128 or 82% were non fatal and 28 or 18% fatal. While it may well be argued that many cases are not reported and this is unquestionably true it is quite evident that the recognition of the disease is increasing. Whether this is due to an actual increase in the number of cases or increase in recognition is not readily apparent although the latter appears to be the case since the finding of cases appears to be directly related to the evidence of interest on the part of clinicians in any local area. This is clearly demonstrated by the fact that Chicago, Kansas City, Memphis and Nashville which are centers for the study of histoplasmosis report cases with the greatest frequency.

The age distribution of 490 reported cases is shown in Fig. 20. It is seen that the greatest frequency of cases and fatalities occurs in the age group under 1 year and 46-65 years. It seems possible that

TABLE 1
INCIDENCE OF HISTOPLASMOSIS WITH RESPECT TO AGE AND SEX
IN THE U. S. A. AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES FROM 1905 TO 1958

	White		Negro		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
<i>United States</i>					
Under 10	42	41	2	3	88
Over 10	270	64	13	6	353
Total					441
<i>Foreign Countries</i>					
Under 10	1	5	3	3	1
Over 10	31	11	5	1	48
Total					49

there is a different causation for these two peaks since the younger peak is probably due to fatalities associated with first infection while the latter peak is probably due to endogenous reinfection.

In Table V are shown the reported cases by race and sex as well as by place of residence of the patient. It is seen that 121 of 491 cases were females or 25% and only 13 were non white. Of the 491 cases only 50 or 10% were from foreign countries. It is also seen that 80% of the United States cases and 86% of the foreign cases were over 10 years of age. It is unquestionable that there are other areas of the world where histoplasmosis is extremely prevalent. It appears also that the low percentage of reports from the foreign literature does not represent absence of cases in many areas but failure of recognition and reporting. It is easy to predict not only increasing recognition of the disease in this country but in many foreign countries as knowledge of this most elusive fungus infection becomes more widespread.

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DIAGNOSTIC PROCEDURES IN THE STUDY OF HISTOPLASMA CAPSULATUM

HOWARD W. LARSEN

In recent years there has developed an enthusiastic interest in *Histoplasma capsulatum* and other systemic fungi which cause human disease. The number of diagnosed and reported systemic mycotic infections throughout the world increases many fold each year. Literature on the subject has become voluminous during the past ten years (1-2).

Since 1950 the methodology used in the investigation of mycotic diseases has been improved and additional techniques have been added. Significant improvements in culture (3) and staining procedures (4-7) have been made during this period. The usefulness of animal inoculation in diagnostic procedures has been enhanced by additional investigations on methods of inoculation, size of inoculum and efficiency of adjuvants (8-22). Diagnostic methods which have proved useful in other biological and chemical studies have been modified and extended to the investigation of systemic mycoses. Tissue culture (23), polarized light (24) and fluorescent antibody (25) procedures have and will inevitably play important roles in advancing our knowledge of mycotic infections. Many of the recent epidemiological (26-27), pathogenetic (28) and therapeutic (29-32) studies that have included the newer techniques have resulted in significant discoveries. It is these diagnostic methods that need further investigation so that they may be considered for wider adoption in future studies in this field of specialization.

CULTURE METHODS

In early mycological investigations (8) when plain Sabouraud's and other media were used *H. capsulatum* was seldom isolated unless the clinical specimens received special handling. These media supported the growth of bacteria and contaminating sapro-

phytic fungi which grew much more rapidly than did the fungus. It soon became evident that it was almost an impossibility to isolate the causal fungus from contaminated specimens although many ingenious methods were employed. Today however with the addition of antibiotics to the various media encouraging results have been obtained but these procedures are not without failures. The use of penicillin and streptomycin or chloramphenicol (33) to control the growth of bacteria and actidione (cycloheximide) (34) to retard the growth of saprophytic fungi has facilitated cultural studies. The amount of each antibiotic added to the medium is dependent upon the source and type of specimen to be cultured. In our experience media containing 10 000 units of penicillin 10 000 units of streptomycin and $1\frac{1}{2}$ mg of actidione per ml have been useful in isolating *H. capsulatum* from sputum and gastric specimens. Biopsied and other aseptically obtained clinical specimens may be cultured on media containing lesser amounts or none at all. Currently the combination of chloramphenicol and actidione is being used in an isolation medium. These two antibiotics are relatively heat stable and can be autoclaved in the medium at 118°C (12 lb steam pressure) for 15 minutes. This combination is available in commercially dehydrated media.* Media containing antibiotics have been useful in obtaining isolations of *H. capsulatum* and other pathogenic fungi from clinical and environmental specimens. Unfortunately however clinical material containing a large number of cells of *Candida* and *Geotrichum* species will interfere with the isolation of *Histoplasma capsulatum* and other systemic fungi even on artificial media containing antibiotics. In these cases the specimens may be treated with antibiotics and inoculated into experimental animals. Failure to isolate the causal organism frequently occurs even with these procedures.

Unequivocal identification of the *H. capsulatum* sometimes requires that the tissue phase be observed. This may be accomplished by animal inoculation of the clinical material followed by culturing tissue from sacrificed animals on artificial media. Inoculated plates or tubes should be incubated at 37°C at a high

*Mycosel Agar Baltimore Biological Laboratory Inc., Baltimore Maryland.
Mycobiotic Agar Difco Laboratories Detroit Michigan

humidity. Histopathological verification can be made from stained tissues as well.

The tissue phase also may be obtained by conversion from the mycelial phase directly on artificial media. These include Francis glucose cystine blood agar (35), brun heart infusion glucose blood agar (36), Salvin's synthetic (37), Kurung's egg (38) and Littman's liver spleen media (39). Although these media have proved successful in converting and maintaining *H. capsulatum*, the tissue culture technique is very useful for these procedures (40). In this method mycelial fragments are added to HeLa cell cultures and transferred to new cultures periodically until the conversion takes place. The HeLa cell cultures are rotated in a roller drum similar to the procedure followed in studying some viral agents. Once the fungus has been converted, the HeLa cells are not needed for the maintenance of the tissue phase.

HeLa cells show active phagocytosis and subsequent intracellular growth of *H. capsulatum* (11). This would appear to provide another laboratory method for the experimental study of *H. capsulatum* in human cells in tissue culture. Some of the preliminary results indicate that HeLa cells in a specific tissue medium may be useful in the diagnosis of histoplasmosis. However, the usefulness of this technique for diagnosis of systemic mycoses must await the results obtained with clinical material now under investigation.

CULTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

The diphasic nature of *H. capsulatum* necessitates the presence of different chemical and physical environments for growth and identification of each phase. Cultural characteristics of the yeast and mycelial phases vary on different types of media and with temperatures of incubation.

On Sabouraud's dextrose agar at room temperature the fungus usually forms a white, cottony aerial mycelium. As the culture ages the mycelium may become buff to brown. Most isolates of *H. capsulatum* grow comparatively slowly, requiring at least 10 to 14 days incubation for the production of a distinct colony (Fig. 1*).

* The assistance of Drs. George C. Cozad and Yousef Al Doory in the preparation of the illustration is gratefully acknowledged.

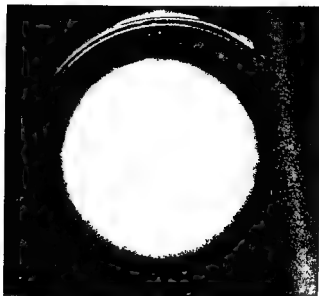


Fig 1 *Histoplasma capsulatum* on Sabouraud's dextrose agar 21 days at room temperature

It is imperative however to be cognizant of the fact that many isolates do not produce typical colonies. During the past five years several isolates from patients with chronic histoplasmosis and on occasions from those receiving treatment with fungicidal agents produced colonies that may be designated as variants. It is this type of an isolate that may be discarded without a positive identification of the etiological agent being made. This is especially true since most of these isolates fail to develop tuberculated macroconidia (chlamydospores).

The mycelial phase from a typical colony consists of small delicate septate branched hyphae. These structures may bear laterally sessile or stalked round to pyriform microconidia which measure 2 to 3 microns in diameter (Fig 2). Most of the microconidia are smooth but a few may be echinulated. It is this phase of the mycelial growth that may be confused with other systemic or saprophytic fungi. However later microscopical examination of most cultures will reveal large round or pyriform macroconidia. These spores are much larger than are the microconidia (7.5 to



Fig. 2 *Histoplasma capsulatum* from Sabouraud's dextrose agar
Microconidia $\times 700$

18μ in diameter) and have a thickened spore wall (Fig. 3). These macroconidia or chlamydospores may be smooth or tuberculated.

Tuberculated macroconidia have been described as diagnostic or characteristic of *H. capsulatum*. Unfortunately they are not produced by all isolates of this fungus. Cultures from several clinical specimens have not produced macroconidia. These isolates have been grown on many types of media and observed on slide cultures. Extensive microscopical examinations have failed to locate tuberculated macroconidia over a two-year period of observations.

Aerated liquid cultures of *H. capsulatum* produce small flocose to spherical forms of growth dispersed throughout the medium. Microscopic examination of these growths show branching hyphae with little or no production of conidia (Fig. 4).

The yeast phase may be obtained by inoculating white mice with the mycelial phase. Three to six weeks after inoculation the mice are sacrificed and tissue from the reticulo-endothelial system aseptically ground and planted on artificial media. The inoculated media should be sealed and incubated at 35 to 37°C . Within three to six days moist, dull white colonies usually develop (Fig. 5) on most yeast phase media. In addition to animal inoculations the yeast phase may be obtained by converting the mycelial phase on

various artificial media. Yeast colonies developing from the initial mycelial inoculum may be membranous and cerebriform. They contain considerable mycelium and may be buff to reddish brown. Successive transfers onto fresh media at intervals of three to five days may result in the development of moist yeast phase colonies. Unless the cultures are incubated at low temperatures (1°C) it is



Fig. 3. a. *Histoplasma capsulatum* from Sabouraud's dextrose agar. Macroconidia $\times 700$. b. Single macroconidium showing tuberculations $\times 700$.

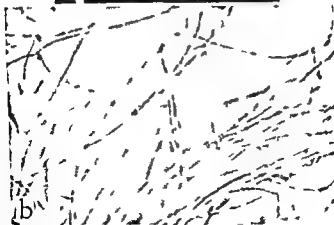


FIG. 1. a. *Histoplasma capsulatum* growing in Sabouraud's dextrose broth shake culture 21 days at room temperature. b. Mycelial preparation from growth in shake culture $\times 700$.



Fig 5 *Histoplasma capsulatum* yeast phase on blood agar four days at 37 C.

necessary to transfer them to fresh media every four or five days to maintain viable cells

Two artificial media which have been used advantageously in recent years for the conversion and maintenance of *H. capsulatum* are potato flour—egg (38) and liver—spleen glucose blood agar (39)

Kurung and Legian reported that on potato flour egg medium the conversion of *H. capsulatum* to the yeast phase was easily accomplished even when strains had been maintained in mycelial stage for long periods. They were successful in many instances in obtaining characteristic yeast like colonies on the first transplant from the mycelial phase. In addition the yeast phase remained viable on potato flour egg medium for more than nine months

when incubated at 1°C and for at least three months when incubated at room temperature

Littman's liver spleen glucose blood agar is relatively efficient in the development of yeast phase growth of the diphasic fungi. The conversion of *H. capsulatum* to its yeast phase occurred in the first transplant from mycelium in most instances at 37°C. The systemic fungi can be maintained for long periods of time on this medium by submerging the growth with sterile mineral oil and incubating in the refrigerator.

Microscopically the yeast phase of *H. capsulatum* consists of small budding cells. They are predominantly ovoid and may measure from 1 to 3 microns in diameter (Fig. 6).

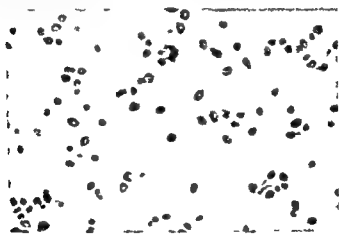


Fig. 6 Yeast cells from blood agar culture $\times 100$

ANIMAL EXPERIMENTATION

A Experimental Histoplasmosis

Experimental histoplasmosis has been studied in many different species of animals including the white and brown mouse, guinea pig, white rat, albino rabbit, dog, hamster, rhesus, and cynomolgous monkey.

The most extensive studies have been with the yeast phase of the fungus by intraperitoneal, intracerebral, and intravenous routes.

of inoculation. Varying results have been obtained depending on the size of the inoculum and route of inoculation.

Susceptibility of the white mouse to experimental histoplasmosis was shown by DeMonbreun in 1934 (8) and Parsons in 1949 (9). Infections resulted for inoculations of either the mycelial or the yeast phase. Later Tager and Liebow learned that 3 to 4 weeks old white mice died of histoplasmosis 100 to 150 days after intraperitoneal inoculation of the mycelial phase (10). In 1945 Levy inoculated intravenously 6 to 8 weeks old white mice with a mixture of the yeast and mycelial phases (11). He was successful in isolating the fungus from the liver and spleen of all of the experimentally infected mice.

Howell *et al* (12) showed that DBA line I mice were uniformly susceptible to the yeast phase of *H. capsulatum* when inoculated intracerebrally. Nearly all of the inoculated mice of this line died prior to thirty days after receiving 20 000 or more yeast cells. The yeast phase proved to be highly virulent by this route of inoculation since 50% of the mice died between the seventh and tenth day following inoculation. In a later publication Howell and Kepkie (13) reported that male DBA line I mice were relatively resistant to intravenous injections of the yeast phase of *H. capsulatum*. Peritoneal injections of large doses of saline suspended yeast cells also produced only an occasional death whereas a comparable number of cells suspended in 5% mucin increased the death rate in this strain of mouse. Nevertheless the intracerebral route was far superior to the intravenous or intraperitoneal routes in producing experimental histoplasmosis.

Campbell and Saslaw (14) have shown that white mice inoculated intraperitoneally were highly susceptible to the yeast phase of *H. capsulatum* when 5% mucin was used as an adjuvant. Approximately 79% of the mice inoculated with a standard inoculum in mucin died within thirty days after the injection. Whereas in similar experiments less than 3% of the mice succumbed in 30 days when the diluent was saline instead of 5% mucin.

Middleton, McVickar and Peterson (15) were successful in producing experimental histoplasmosis in the Sherman strain of the white rat. These investigators determined that the ID₅₀ ranged

between 17 and 21 million viable yeast cells per rat when inoculated intravenously. The intravenous route when suitable number of cells were used yielded a consistently reproducible fatal infection in rats. However intraperitoneal inoculation with the same number of heat killed or living cells showed the rat to be highly resistant to this fungus in that no pathological effect was apparent.

Hazen and Tahler (16) produced experimental histoplasmosis of the skin and mucous membranes of the albino rabbit by inoculating with 2 ml of a 1:2 saline suspension of yeast cells intravenously. However seven of the fifteen rabbits infected recovered completely two to three months after intravenous injection.

Farrell *et al* (17) showed that dogs could be experimentally infected by *H. capsulatum*. In dogs that were inoculated intratracheally with the yeast phase acute progressive fatal experimental histoplasmosis resulted. When a similar dose of the inoculum was given by stomach tube to a series of dogs no clinical disease occurred. The mycelial phase of *H. capsulatum* failed to produce clinical disease in dogs receiving the inoculum intragastrially or intratracheally. These investigators found cortisone treated dogs susceptible to the mycelial phase when inoculated intratracheally but not by the intragastric route.

Salvin's (18) studies show that young hamsters inoculated intraperitoneally were more susceptible to small inocula of *H. capsulatum* yeast phase than were young guinea pigs or white mice. However the use of 2.5% mucin as an adjuvant lowered the infectious dose in mice.

Drouhet and Schwarz (19) have shown the golden hamster to be more susceptible to the yeast phase of certain isolates of *H. capsulatum* when inoculated intraperitoneally than is the white mouse.

Hill and Marcus (20) were unable to isolate *H. capsulatum* from cynomolgous (*Macaca*) monkeys inoculated intratracheally and intracardially with the yeast phase. Animals inoculated intracardially produced serological titers and three were skin test positive but all specimens cultured failed to yield the fungus. These findings do not agree with the earlier work of DeMonbreun (8) who inoculated two rhesus monkeys (*Macaca rhesus*) intravenously

with the yeast phase of the fungus. Both monkeys responded by having clinical and pathological signs consistent with histoplasmosis. However, one rhesus monkey failed to respond to an intravenous inoculation of the mycelial phase.

Grayston and his co-workers (21) exposed white Swiss mice intranasally to the mycelial phase by instilling droplets of the inoculum on the nose of lightly anesthetized animals. Infection resulted from a small number of viable spores and the use of larger doses did not accelerate the pathogenesis of the disease. Histopathological studies revealed little or no apparent reaction of the lung tissue to the inoculated spores. It was evident that the lungs did not act as a serious barrier since the fungus was isolated from tail bleedings shortly after the injections.

During the past few years in our laboratory intranasal experiments have been under investigation using the Henderson aerosol apparatus. Exposure to aerosolized yeast and mycelial elements in the Henderson tube more nearly simulates the manner by which the infection must be contracted in nature. Only the nose of the experimental animal is exposed for a definite period to the aerosolized inoculum.

The results of these preliminary observations are most encouraging in that guinea pigs (Hartley strain) converted from a negative to a positive histoplasmin skin test when exposed to formalized inocula. Guinea pigs receiving small doses of living inocula converted from a negative to positive skin test and many of them had detectable complement fixation antibody titers.

B. Animals in Diagnosis of Histoplasmosis

In many instances clinical specimens must be inoculated into laboratory animals for the isolation of the fungus and diagnosis of histoplasmosis. Clinical specimens should be treated with antibiotics prior to injection into the animal. Caution should be taken, however, not to include streptomycin in the specimens. This antibiotic has proved to be extremely toxic to white mice in our investigation.

To enhance the chance of isolating the fungus, clinical specimens should be treated with an antibiotic solution for a long period of time. Excellent results have been obtained when the specimen

and antibiotic solution were shaken vigorously with a paint shaking machine. This mixture may then be inoculated intraperitoneally into mice. Although the white mouse is not in every case infected with *H. capsulatum* the species is an excellent tool in recovering the fungus from contaminated specimens. There is considerable disagreement on the optimal time after inoculation to sacrifice the mouse. The suggested period ranges from two to eight weeks. In our experience the white Swiss mouse will seldom succumb to histoplasmosis within thirty days from an intraperitoneal inoculation. Nevertheless, when these mice are sacrificed and their tissue ground and plated on artificial media the fungus will be isolated. Heavily contaminated specimens such as soil may result in bacteremia and death of the animal even if the specimens have been treated with antibiotics and daily parental inoculations of the mice followed. Specimens from patients which contain an overwhelming number of *Candida* cells often destroy the animal before *H. capsulatum* infection ensues.

The great number of mice which were destroyed by environmental specimens which had been treated with antibiotics prior to inoculation prompted a search for more efficient techniques of recovering pathogenic fungi from such specimens. The cost of animals and antibiotics is high and the time required to adequately process a sample is a disadvantage. In view of this a direct exposure of mice to soil and similar specimens was undertaken. Also such a procedure would approximate a natural infection since man and animal probably become infected by inhaling aerosolized inoculum.

The results of preliminary studies by Hinton *et al.* (22) indicate that the direct exposure method is more efficient than the indirect method of isolating *H. capsulatum* from environmental specimens. The mice do not have to combat bacteremia by this methodology. Mortality rates were lower in the direct exposure method and the procedure requires less time and equipment. This method is not infallible and certain precautionary measures are absolutely necessary. The specimens should be completely dry which more or less assures that aerosols will be produced by the activity of the mice. Failures have occurred because of leakage of water from the drinking bottles which ruined the sample. How

ever in artificially seeded soil cultures and with soil collected from an area where humans were known to have been infected while mice became infected after exposure. Few mice succumb to the infection within thirty days but should be sacrificed and tissue from the reticulo endothelial systems ground and planted aseptically on Sabouraud's glucose agar. In addition to *H. capsulatum* *Cryptococcus neoformans*, *Blastomyces dermatitidis* and *Blastomyces brasiliensis* have been isolated from mice exposed by the direct method on artificially inoculated soils. *Cryptococcus neoformans* has been isolated from naturally infected specimens.

Although excellent artificial media are available to the investigator animal inoculation still plays a major role in diagnostic medical mycology.

STAINING METHODS

Within the past few years many new staining and microscopy procedures have been incorporated into the protocols of systemic mycotic investigations. The earlier stains usually resulted in the detection of the etiological agents after long periods of searching. The parasites can be observed in hematoxylin and eosin stained tissues. The special stains of today, however, are much more useful especially in old chronic mycotic infections. The periodic acid Schiff (Hotchkiss and McManus) (4) and Gridley (5) staining procedures have seen extensive use in recent years. These special staining procedures are not infallible and often the fungus is difficult to delineate. In the periodic acid Schiff method many carbohydrates and mucoproteins exhibit a staining reaction similar to that of the fungi. Often only an experienced pathologist can make a positive identification of fungal elements. A similar criticism can be made of the Gridley stain in that mucin and elastic fibers stain a deep blue as does fungus mycelium. However the tissue phase of most of the systemic fungi can be identified as rose or purple stained structures by using the Gridley method. At the present time the staining procedure of choice in many laboratories is the Comori's methanamine silver nitrate method as adapted and applied by Crocott for staining fungi (6). This special staining

procedure has proved exceedingly helpful in revealing the parasites of histoplasmosis blastomycosis coccidioidomycosis and cryptococcosis. It certainly would seem to be the procedure of choice in observing old chronic cases of mycotic infections. In cryptococcosis Mayer's mucicarmine stain (7) is a useful method in studying the fungus in tissue sections. In one or two cases studied by us this was the only stain that unequivocally revealed the parasite.

POLARIZED MICROSCOPY METHOD

The adaptation of polarized microscopy to the study of mycotic infections is a relatively recent and interesting adventure. Potenza and Feo (21) have shown clearly that fungal elements in clinical specimens were optically active. Luminous areas were apparent in material from human mycoses and experimental mycotic lesions in animals. The pathogens are optically active in unstained as well as stained tissues. Unfortunately many intracellular inclusions in the systemic fungi also are birefringent. Nevertheless one can usually learn to delineate these bodies from fungus material. The fungi appear as colorless bodies whereas many of the other birefringent materials are colored.

In our experience excellent results have been obtained by using the polarizing microscope on tissues from human cases of histoplasmosis stained with hematoxylin and eosin periodic acid Schiff and methenamine silver nitrate. Tissues from Swiss white mice experimentally infected with *Coccidioides immitis* *Blastomyces dermatitidis* *Cryptococcus neoformans* and *Histoplasma capsulatum* have been observed with polarized light. Characteristic birefringent forms were found in nearly all of the tissues examined revealing typical maltese crosses.

It has been my good fortune to work with polarized microscopy under the tutelage of Dr. Henry Swerny and his associates at the Missouri State Sanatorium. These investigators have shown the polarized light technique to be in excellent aid in revealing the yeast phase of *H. capsulatum* in chronic human histoplasmosis. In several cases histopathologic diagnosis was made before the fungus was isolated from the tissue.

The adaptability of polarizing filters and discs to almost any type of laboratory microscope makes this a rapid and easy procedure. In addition the rapidity by which tissue sections can be scanned by the polarized light technique more than justifies its use in systemic mycotic investigations. This technique should not be considered as a replacement for proved staining procedures but should be accepted as another aid in the diagnosis of mycotic infections.

FLUORESCENT ANTIBODY METHODS

One of the most recent techniques that is proving useful in the diagnosis of diseases caused by many different agents is the fluorescent antibody method. Coons *et al.* in 1942 developed the technique but the methods have been extensively used in the last few years (25). A detailed description of the procedures of the methods were published by Coons and Kaplan in 1950 (42). The technique has proved very useful in the study of bacterial and viral diseases. During the past year preliminary studies have been under investigation attempting to determine the usefulness of the fluorescent antibody methods in detecting *H. capsulatum* in clinical specimens. An evaluation of the direct and indirect fluorescent antibody methods as aids in the diagnosis of mycotic infections will have to await further investigations. However Vogel and Padula (13) in a very recent publication showed that antibodies in sera with systemic mycoses were demonstrable by the indirect method.

Improvements and simplifications in the procedures during recent years should stimulate additional studies to ascertain the usefulness of the fluorescent antibody technique in the diagnosis of mycotic infections.

SUMMARY

It would appear that mycological investigations will become more efficient and greatly extended in view of the improved and recently added diagnostic laboratory methods. Therefore it is imperative that all of the tools available for the isolation of the etiological agents and the diagnosis of the mycotic diseases be in

cluded in future studies. Only through carefully planned and exhaustive studies will the real significance and importance of the fungal infections be determined. Mycological as well as bacteriological or viral studies should be included in all cases of so-called peculiar, unusual or undiagnosed disease processes. To accomplish these goals it should not entail too much additional media space or work for the investigators. The results may be even more rewarding than they have been in the past few years.

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THE SEROLOGY OF HISTOPLASMOSIS

DANIEL J. TEVENBERG

INTRODUCTION

Serologic methods for the study of histoplasmosis have contributed to the present knowledge of this disease. Significant serologic studies independently were described in 1947 and 1948 (25, 34, 35, 50). At that time the current status of histoplasmosis being a relatively common and usually benign entity rather than an uncommon and usually fatal disease still was indeterminate. In large part this debatable status was attributable to the paucity of cases proved by culture isolation of the causative organism. Reported proved cases were uncommon despite extensive efforts to isolate the organism from critically ill patients and from fresh surgical and autopsy material. Histologic examination had yielded only sporadic evidence of *Histoplasma* like organisms. Benign and brief acute pulmonary disease was unrecognized as a form of histoplasmosis. Investigation of skin test converters (persons changing to a positive histoplasmin skin test from a previous negative skin test) with and without clinical illness by fungus culture methods presented a formidable and unrewarding laboratory chore. Thus the thesis of histoplasmosis being a common disease depended upon the tenuous circumstantial evidence of skin test data described elsewhere in this volume. More proved cases were needed for this thesis to be valid. This then was the climate of knowledge of histoplasmosis when serology seriously became investigated.

The serologic tests to be described furnished a tool for case finding. They have served as a survey screening method which has led to significant numbers of proved cases. Also they have aided in the understanding of the epidemiology of histoplasmosis by furnishing additional circumstantial diagnostic evidence. Today when the thesis that histoplasmosis is a common and usually benign disease no longer seriously is contested these serologic methods

afford an important practical aid in the clinical diagnosis of histoplasmosis

Topics of serology which seem appropriate for this discussion include (1) the various tests available (2) the sensitivity and specificity of the tests with emphasis on comparative studies (3) significant serum titers and their duration (4) serologic patterns of disease (5) cross reactions (6) variations in antigenic preparations (7) antigenic fractions (8) the relationship of serology and the skin test and a summary of practical implications. A presentation of representative data rather than a complete bibliographic review is intended.

I The Serologic Tests

The tests studied utilize the serologic principles of (a) complement fixation (b) agglutination and (c) precipitin reactions. The various complement fixation tests differ from one another both in technic (quantity of reagents conditions of incubation criteria of fixation) and in the nature and concentration of the antigen. The antigens consist of yeast phase products (whole yeast suspension ground yeast supernatant sonic disintegrated supernatant) on the one hand and mycelial phase products (histoplasmin or fractions of histoplasmin) on the other. The agglutination tests (colloidal particle agglutination hemagglutination latex particle agglutination) and precipitin test employ histoplasmin as the antigen—either as antigenic coating of particulate matter in the former tests or as a soluble antigen in the latter.

A The Complement Fixation Tests 1 The Test of Salvin (25) employs formalinized whole yeast phase antigen. With sera obtained from *Histoplasma* infected rabbits antibodies in high titer appeared within 2 weeks and persisted for 23 weeks. In contrast histoplasmin as antigen detected antibodies over a briefer period 2 to 7 weeks and in lower titer. Also *Histoplasma* yeast phase antigen gave no cross reactions with sera from *Blastomyces* infected rabbits whereas histoplasmin reacted in low titer with these sera.

2 The Test of Tenenberg and Howell (50) employs histoplasmin as antigen. With sera obtained from guinea pigs infected

with *H. capsulatum* complement fixation was noted. These sera were obtained seven or more months after infection. Similarly blastomycin antigen detected complement fixing antibodies in sera from guinea pigs infected with *Blastomyces dermatitidis*. Cross reactions between these antigens histoplasmin and blastomycin were noted when tested against the heterologous antisera. However the homologous reactions were present in higher titer than were the heterologous reactions and relative specificity was demonstrable by the method of serial serum dilutions.

Application of this test to human undiluted sera (10) revealed complete complement fixation in 14 of 300 different sera. These positive tests were with the sera of 6 of 9 proved cases of histoplasmosis, 2 of 13 recent skin test converters, and 6 of 36 persons with radiologically unhealed pulmonary lesions and positive histoplasmin negative tuberculin skin tests. None of 242 control sera gave complete complement fixation though 5.1% revealed partial fixation. Cross reactions were noted with blastomycin antigen but the homologous antigen histoplasmin gave higher titers.

3. The Test of Saslaw and Campbell employs whole yeast phase (35) and ground yeast phase supernatant (36) as antigens. With sera from rabbits immunized with heat killed yeast phase *H. capsulatum* complement fixation was noted with both these antigens. *Blastomyces* yeast phase antigen fixed complement when tested with sera from rabbits immunized with *Blastomyces dermatitidis*. Cross reactions were noted with *Histoplasma* and *Blastomyces* yeast phase antigens when tested with the heterologous antisera. The homologous reactions were of higher titer. Ground yeast phase *Histoplasma* antigen gave a greater degree of cross reaction than did the whole yeast phase antigen. Because of the cross reactions of *Histoplasma* and *Blastomyces* yeast phase antigens and their respective heterologous antisera the authors recommended the inclusion of both these antigens in complement fixation tests for histoplasmosis.

II The Agglutination Tests 1. The agglutination test studied most extensively is the Collodion Agglutination Test of Saslaw and Campbell (34). Collodion particles coated with histoplasmin are incubated with various dilutions of serum and macroscopic

clumping is the criterion of the presence of antibodies. Employing sera from rabbits immunized with heat killed yeast phase *Histoplasma* organisms significant agglutination of the coated collodion particles was noted. Significant serum titers (implied though not explicitly stated) ranged from 1:20 to 1:80. *Blastomyces* antiserum in low titer cross reacted with these particles. Several different preparations of histoplasmin were found to be equally suitable as antigen (37).

In tests with human antisera (38) strong collodion agglutination reactions (1:20 to 1:80) were noted in 3 cases of acute histoplasmosis and weak to negative reactions (less than 1:5 titer) in 3 cases of chronic histoplasmosis. The collodion agglutination titers paralleled yeast antigen complement fixation titers which ranged from 1:160 to 1:1210 in the acute cases and 1:20 or less in the chronic cases. Weak to negative reactions with collodion agglutination and ground yeast phase antigen complement fixation again were noted in a blind study of human sera from chronic cases of histoplasmosis (40).

2. Other agglutination tests include (a) A histoplasmin latex agglutination test (42) similar in principle to the collodion agglutination test save for the use of latex particles instead of collodion particles. Preliminary studies with animal (dog, monkey and rabbit) and human antisera were similar to the results of collodion agglutination—titers were elevated early in the disease and became negative in 2 to 3 months during convalescence. (b) A hemagglutination test (20) in which sheep erythrocytes are coated with histoplasmin. Agglutination was noted with sera from *Histoplasma* immune rabbits. A zone phenomenon (inhibition of agglutination) was noted in the presence of excess antigen.

C. The Precipitin Test of Salvin and Hottel (26) employs histoplasmin as antigen. * Sera from rabbits infected with yeast phase *Histoplasma capsulatum* and hyperimmunized with formalin

Histoplasmin and human sera are employed in precipitation reactions in agar gel. Sensitivity and cross reactions with heterologous fungus antigens and antisera are described. Different bands of precipitation are interpreted as distinctive of specific vs. non-specific reactions as well as distinctive of true vs. false positive reactions. (Herner, D. C. Diagnosis of histoplasmosis using precipitation reactions in agar gel. *Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol.* 61:67-19, 1948).

killed organisms were tested with 1 Histoplasma antigen preparations—filtrate of ground yeast phase yeast phase broth culture filtrate ground mycelial phase filtrate and mycelial broth filtrate (histoplasmin). Significant titers appeared at 13 days and reached a peak at about 20 days. Titers (highest dilution of antigen giving a precipitin reaction) were maximal and of longest duration (76 days) with histoplasmin.

In studies of sera from proved human cases of histoplasmosis precipitin titers of 1:8 or greater appeared to be significant though chronologic change in titer seemed even more significant (30). Cross reactions with heterologous antigens (blastomycin and coccidioidin) were noted. However precipitates with the homologous antigen usually were present with a greater antigen dilution and persisted for a longer period of time than with the heterologous antigens. A zone phenomenon due to excess antigen was noted only very rarely.

A brief summary of the preceding discussion of the available tests for histoplasmosis indicates that all of the available antigenic preparations and the *in vitro* techniques employed are effective with experimental animal and human antisera. With a given serum the tests vary in sensitivity and specificity. Cross reactions to be discussed further occur between Histoplasma antigens and heterologous antisera as well as between heterologous antigen and Histoplasma antisera.

II. Sensitivity and Specificity—Comparative Studies

It appears obvious that a test to be of practical value must possess a relatively high degree of sensitivity (detect a significant per cent of positive sera in an infected population) and specificity (fail to be positive in an uninfected population). The sensitivity of a test and consequently the titer obtained with it readily may be altered by varying the concentration of antigen and other reagents as well as the conditions of incubation and reading of the test. An immunologic truism might read—increasing the sensitivity of a test jeopardizes its specificity—so a compromise between sensitivity and specificity must be made if a test is to be practicable.

A consideration of the tests previously discussed may convey the expectation that those employing histoplasmin as antigen would

yield parallel quantitative data since the same antigen is employed in each. Accordingly the histoplasmin complement fixation, collodion agglutination and precipitin tests would reveal comparable data. However variations of sensitivity and specificity inherent in these different serologic techniques as well as variations in the antigenic properties of different histoplasmin preparations introduce factors which contribute to observed discordant results. Similarly tests employing yeast phase antigens may be expected to vary in comparative studies not only do different yeast phase preparations vary in potency but also whole yeast with an intact surface does not present the same antigenic complex as do the components of disrupted yeast cells. Further as indicated earlier and to be discussed again later tests vary in sensitivity depending upon the stage of infection represented by the serum specimen to be tested.

Inherent fundamental differences between complement fixation, agglutination and precipitin reactions render quantitative comparisons (titers) misleading. For example a zone of inhibition due to excess antigen is most common in the precipitin technic less likely in agglutination reactions and insignificant in complement fixation. Also precipitin titers are incomparable with complement fixation and agglutination titers since in the precipitin test antigen rather than serum dilutions are employed. In the precipitin test equivalence of antigen to antibody rather than antibody concentration is determined increasing titer reveals diminishing rather than increasing antibody concentration to the point of inadequate antigen for visible aggregation of particles. The collodion agglutination test in which histoplasmin also is used as the antigen but in which serum dilutions are employed should on a theoretical basis be a more valid quantitative test for antibody concentration than is the precipitin test. Ignoring serologic theory however the precipitin and collodion agglutination tests as herein discussed empirically have proved to be of value under similar circumstances (28, 29, 39, 40).

Some comparative results of tests on a given serum already have been mentioned. Salvin (25) with complement fixation tests employing serum from infected rabbits found whole yeast phase antigen superior to histoplasmin in the degree and duration of titer

Crayston (13-14) with complement fixation tests of human and rabbit antisera found whole yeast histoplasmin and ground yeast supernatant of diminishing sensitivity in this order. Hill and Campbell (15) in complement fixation tests with human sera and whole yeast and histoplasmin antigens found that either antigen would have been diagnostic in many cases. Both antigens however were necessary for maximal detection of diagnostic titers—whole yeast antigen reacted in higher titer with sera from cases of early primary pulmonary histoplasmosis whereas histoplasmin was more sensitive in chronic cases with radiologic evidence of pulmonary cavitation, fibrosis or pleural effusion. In the latter clinical group whole yeast phase antigen frequently failed to reveal a significant titer.

Salvin and Campbell (38) as discussed earlier found that collodion agglutination and yeast phase complement fixation tests gave high titer in acute human histoplasmosis and weak to negative reactions in chronic disease. This is similar to the findings of Salvin and Furcolow (28-30) who found the precipitin test positive in early stages of histoplasmosis. However the latter authors differ in their results with whole yeast phase antigen; they found yeast phase complement fixation tended to be positive in the later stages of infection.

Rubin (24) compared histoplasmin and whole yeast phase antigen in complement fixation with human sera from an epidemic of histoplasmosis. He reported higher titers with whole yeast phase antigen and weak to negative titers with histoplasmin. He concluded on the basis of this single study in which the same strain of *H. capsulatum* presumably was the cause of all the cases that the superiority of the yeast phase antigen as a tool for the diagnosis of acute and recent histoplasmosis is quite apparent in these tests. *This is quite in contrast with the findings of Salvin and Furcolow (28-30) mentioned above as well as with the result of Rubin, Lehan and Furcolow (23) who found whole yeast phase antigen complement fixation negative throughout the 3 month period of an acute case of histoplasmosis. Histoplasmin complement fixation was positive early (23 days after the onset of illness) and became negative*

3 weeks later (Precipitins were demonstrable with only one of the serial sera)

In an extensive comparative blind study of different tests with human sera Tenenbergh (51) found whole yeast phase antigen more sensitive and more non specific than histoplasmin antigen in the complement fixation test. With the same sera Siskin (10) found both the collodion agglutination and ground yeast phase antigen complement fixation relatively insensitive whereas Silvin (29) found the precipitin test insensitive but whole yeast phase complement fixation sensitive and relatively specific.

An explanation of these apparent discrepancies appears to lie in the fact that many of the sera which were expected to be positive on the basis of having been obtained from proved and presumptive cases of histoplasmosis represented specimens obtained relatively late in the course of the disease. As indicated earlier the precipitin and collodion agglutination tests tend to be positive early and transiently. Therefore evaluation of the sensitivity and specificity of the precipitin and collodion agglutination tests with late stage sera is misleading; the stage of disease represented by the sera must be considered. This consideration however does not explain the disparities between the results of Tenenbergh (51) and Silvin (29) with whole yeast phase antigen and Siskin (10) with ground yeast phase antigen. Perhaps the variation in antigenic properties of different lots of antigen contributes to the differences noted.

In a study of chronic progressive cavity histoplasmosis Lehan, Brasher, Larsh and Furcolow (18) found that the histoplasmin complement fixation test was slightly more positive and gave higher titers than the whole yeast phase test. The histoplasmin test was positive in 80% of cases whereas both tests together serologically detected 90% of the cases. They conclude from this and other data that the precipitin test usually is positive earlier than the complement fixation tests and that neither histoplasmin nor whole yeast phase antigen alone give as high a degree of sensitivity as when employed concurrently. Their recommendation that tests with two (or more) antigens be employed for most effective detection of antibodies is similar to that of Hill and Campbell cited earlier.

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IV Serologic Patterns

Serologic patterns (the sensitivity of different tests at various stages of infection) have been alluded to earlier. The precipitin test (28-29-30) and collodion agglutination test (38-40) tend to demonstrate their highest titers early in the disease and for a transient period and are weak to negative in the later stages of infection. Conversely the complement fixation tests with histoplasmin and yeast phase antigens tend to be positive in the later stages of infection (17-18-29-31). (Exceptions to these patterns have been noted (3-4-6-15-23-24).) These patterns are analogous to those in *Coccidioidomycosis* (18) in which the precipitin reaction was found to be most useful early in the disease (1 to 3 months) and the complement fixation test more useful in later stages (3 months to a year or longer).

An attractive hypothesis applicable to the relatively short-lived status of the precipitin and collodion agglutination tests is that of Martin (19). He suggests that soluble antigen may combine *in vivo* with circulating antibody and in excess of antigen may be present. The serum thus may provide insufficient free antibody for *in vitro* aggregation or clumping of particles. Complement fixation still may occur since it is not necessary that a precipitate should form for complement to be fixed for this may occur in zones where there is no visible precipitation (1).

Campbell and Binkley (6) discussed three different disease patterns and their associated serology. In cases of (a) primary acute pulmonary histoplasmosis they found that ground yeast phase complement fixation reached peak titers usually within the first 6 weeks of illness and rapidly declined by the fourth month. In cases of (b) chronic generalized disease high titers for long periods (6 months or longer) were usual. In (c) advanced generalized histoplasmosis low to negative titers were found.

Negative serologic tests (2-13-18) as well as negative skin tests (2-18) have been described by others in chronic to fatal histoplasmosis. It is not known whether this depression is specific or merely a reflection of a nonspecific depression associated with critical illness as noted in skin tests (11).

Salvin and Furcolow (30) commented upon the relatively early

III Significant Titers and Duration of Titers

The liberty has been taken to infer from published studies with human sera the titers of each test which appear to be significant. Understandably the definition of a positive or significant titer generally has been avoided. A titer per se may be misleading: a low titer with a relatively less sensitive test may have greater significance than a high titer with a more sensitive test. The sensitive test yielding high titers may at the same time give nonspecific or cross reactions to an extent that diminishes its value. Emphasis has been placed upon the value of tests on serial serum specimens particularly when the serum titers are of equivocal interpretation. The rationale is that a changing titer is a reflection of current or recent antigenic stimulus (infection).

With the complement fixation test of Salvin employing whole yeast phase antigen significant titers of 1:20, 1:40 and a duration of titers for 5 weeks to 18 months (13), 3 weeks to 6 months (24) and up to 8 years (32) have been reported.

The complement fixation test of Saslaw and Campbell with whole yeast phase antigen is considered suggestive in a titer of 1:10 to 1:80 and presumptive in a titer of 1:160. Significant titers have varied in duration from 2 to 16 weeks in acute cases and for 48 weeks or longer in chronic cases (6, 15).

The complement fixation test of Saslaw and Campbell with ground yeast phase antigen may be considered positive in a titer of 1:10 to 1:160 and has persisted for 2 to 16 weeks or longer (3, 6).

The complement fixation test of Tenenberg and Howell with histoplasmin antigen has been considered positive in a titer of 1:1 to 1:5 (2, 10, 51). With Schubert's modification of this test (43) a titer of 1:8 is considered significant (18). The duration of a significant titer has ranged from 3 to 8 weeks in acute (23) and from a few weeks to years in chronic (2, 51) cases.

The precipitin test has been considered significant in an antigen titer of 1:4 to 1:8 and may be positive from 1 to 2 weeks to 5 or 8 months (30) or longer.

The collodion agglutination test has been considered significant in a titer of 1:20 to 1:80 and may persist from 2 to 3 weeks to 1 month or longer (31, 38, 39).

with *Histoplasma* antigens and antiserum from rabbits immunized with *C. albicans*, *C. neoformans*, *S. schenckii* and *B. brasiliensis*. The serologic cross reactions are similar to those observed in animal skin tests with histoplasmin, blastomycin, coccidioidin and haplosporangin (9).

In general, homologous reactions have been distinguished from heterologous reactions by employing appropriate serum dilutions, higher titers being obtained with the homologous antigen. This specificity demonstrable by differential titrations is similar to that of the skin test. Howell (16) demonstrated relative specificity with the homologous skin test antigens (histoplasmin and blastomycin) when the appropriate antigen dilution (critical titer) was employed.

Tempering the generalization that homologous reactions are stronger than heterologous (cross) reactions are the findings of Campbell and Binkley (6). They found that ground yeast phase antigens of *Histoplasma* and *Blastomyces* give extensive cross reactions in complement fixation tests with sera from cases of Blastomycosis and Histoplasmosis respectively. Many of the cross reactions were indistinguishable from the homologous reactions by serum titrations. Coccidioidin antigen and coccidioides human antiserum also cross reacted but to a less marked degree. Because of these cross reactions, antigens from each of these three fungi were recommended for routine serologic tests in these three diseases.

The confusing problem of cross reactions raised by these studies of Campbell and Binkley is mitigated somewhat by the realization that ground yeast antigens were employed. It has been shown that ground yeast phase *Histoplasma* gives greater cross reactions with *Blastomyces* antiserum than does whole yeast phase antigen (36). Salvin even failed to find cross reactions with whole yeast *Histoplasma* antigen and *Blastomyces* rabbit antiserum though he did find histoplasmin antigen cross reacted in low titer (25).

The problem of cross reactions appears to be significant but soluble if suitable titrations and the appropriate antigens are included in serologic testing. The independent geographic distribution of endemic histoplasmosis and coccidioidomycosis further decreases confusion in serologic interpretation in the study of a

and transient appearance of significant precipitin titers in contrast with the more prolonged significant titers in the whole yeast phase complement fixation test. They postulated that this type of data might be employed as a prognostic guide: a negative precipitin and a positive complement fixation test indicating a poor prognosis. This is analogous to the suggestion of Smith *et al.* (4b) who found in coccidioidomycosis that a pattern of a high and/or rising complement fixation titer and a negative precipitin test was associated with the severity of infection. Contrarywise Crayston (13) did not find complement fixation titers correlative with the severity of infection which is somewhat in agreement with Campbell and Binkley (6).

The data cited in the preceding three sections indicate that the precipitin and collodion agglutination tests tend to be positive in acute or early stages of chronic histoplasmosis whereas the complement fixation tests tend to be positive in the later stages or of relatively low titer in early stages of disease. There is frequent overlap so that this generalization is not inflexible. Thus two or more different serologic tests in combination are more sensitive than only one test.

Though desirable prognostic serologic patterns have not convincingly been demonstrated. Each serologic test can vary from positive to negative at all stages of infection.

V. Cross Reactions

Cross reactions represent an aspect of specificity. Histoplasma antigens demonstrate cross reactions with other fungus antisera. Conversely Histoplasma antisera demonstrate cross reactions with other fungus antigens. Similar cross reactions involving the same fungi occur with skin tests. Apparently these fungi are related antigenically.

The most common cross reactions involve *Blastomyces* antigen and antiserum and they occur in all the tests studied in this regard with both human antiserum (2, 6, 10, 15, 18, 30) and animal antiserum (21, 25, 34, 37, 50). Similar reactions have been observed with Histoplasma and *Coccidioides* antigens and antisera (1, 6, 15, 18). No cross reactions have been demonstrated in the collodion agglutination test (3) or whole yeast phase complement fixation test (36).

VII. Antigenic Fractions

Despite the extensive use of histoplasmin and yeast phase products in skin testing and serology there has been relatively little study of purified fractions of these antigenic substances.

The serologic properties of the crude supernatant of ground and sonic-disintegrated yeast phase *Histoplasma* have been mentioned earlier. Salvin and Ribi (33) have presented evidence that the antigenic activity in complement fixation resides in the cell wall rather than in the cytoplasm of the yeast phase *Histoplasma*.

Sorensen and Evans (19) isolated a protein free antigen (presumably polysaccharide) from the supernate of a fluid culture of yeast phase *Histoplasma*. This fraction fixed complement when tested with sera from *Histoplasma* infected rabbits and did not cross react with sera from *Blastomyces* and *Coccidioides* infected rabbits. This is similar to the findings of Pates (21) who isolated a polysaccharide like fraction of histoplasmin which gave a precipitation reaction with serum from *Histoplasma* inoculated rabbits and which did not cross react with serum from rabbits inoculated with *Blastomyces*. In addition three other fractions—protein like, polysaccharide like and of undetermined chemical nature—reacted not only with *Histoplasma* antisera but also cross reacted with *Blastomyces* antisera.

It seems appropriate to mention the polysaccharide fraction of histoplasmin studied by Cross and Howell (8) which gave positive skin tests in *Histoplasma* and *Blastomyces* infected guinea pigs. The homologous skin test reaction was greater than the heterologous reaction. This polysaccharide immunologically is unlike the fraction of Sorensen and Evans and is similar to the polysaccharide like fraction of Pates which cross reacted with *Blastomyces* antiserum.

A provocative study is that of Campbell (7) who investigated the complement fixing properties of ethanol precipitated crude fractions of both histoplasmin and ground yeast phase *H. capsulatum*. At least two antigenically different components were obtained: one fraction precipitated by 0.1 mole ethanol and which predominated in the yeast phase complex and a second fraction precipitated by 0.1 mole ethanol and which was found in both the

stable population. However, the apparent overlap of the geographic distribution of histoplasmosis and blastomycosis (47) renders epidemiologic considerations less helpful in distinguishing these two diseases. Also, study of migrant cases is not clarified by epidemiologic considerations when cross reactions are involved. So, antigenic preparations from *Histoplasma Coccidioides* and *Blastomyces* may be needed in tests with certain sera.

VI Variations in Antigenic Preparations

The antigenic properties of yeast phase and mycelial phase (histoplasmin) antigen vary depending upon the strain of *H. capsulatum* from which they are derived. Significant variations in potency of histoplasmin (14) and whole yeast phase (46) complement fixing antigens were found when comparing lots of each produced by several different strains of *H. capsulatum* in tests with both human and rabbit antiserum. (This is comparable to the variation in potency of different lots of histoplasmin in skin tests) (16). Further, serum from rabbits immunized with a given strain of *Histoplasma* did not necessarily give highest titers with antigens from this same strain. Antigenic potency in serology varied independent of whether the test serum was homologous or heterologous to the strain of antigen. This variation in potency is contrary to the findings of Salvin and Hottel, who found no significant variation in the potency of histoplasmin produced by several strains of *H. capsulatum* (27).

Comparison of histoplasmin and yeast phase antigens, each derived from the same strain of *Histoplasma*, revealed variable interpretations of potency depending upon the nature of the serum employed (45). Thus, with hyperimmune rabbit antiserum, all three antigens tested (histoplasmin, whole yeast phase cells and supernatant from sonic-disintegrated yeast cells) were of equal complement fixing activity. With serum from infected rabbits, whole yeast phase antigen was inferior to the other two antigens. With serum from proved and presumptive human cases of histoplasmosis, histoplasmin was the most reactive. The authors conclude that antigens should not be preselected on the basis of tests with non human sera.

negative serology become positive. Similar case studies are described by Salvin and Furcolow (30).

The serologic tests in significant titer as described earlier are of variable duration. The histoplasmin skin test once positive usually remains so for years to life long. Thus in a followup study of the Camp Crater Epidemic (17) more than 6 years after the epidemic all 26 cases studied still had positive skin tests but only 7 had positive serologic tests. Other studies of epidemics have yielded similar data (12). Further evidence that skin tests are more persistent than the serologic tests is the observation that skin test converters usually continue to have positive skin tests thereafter whereas they usually have negative serologic tests when studied serologically (10, 29, 10, 51).

Discordant results of skin tests and serology may occur during clinically active histoplasmosis either may be positive and the other be negative. Thus positive skin tests and negative serology as well as negative skin tests and positive serology have been observed (10, 17, 52). The non specific depression of skin reactivity associated with critical illness (11) has not been shown to account for the depression of serologic reactivity.

II Influence of Skin Testing Upon Subsequent Serology

There is evidence that repeated skin testing with histoplasmin does not induce a positive skin test in humans (22, 31, 41) or in guinea pigs (16). Similarly repeated negative skin tests with histoplasmin fail to induce positive serologic tests in humans (22, 31, 41) or in guinea pigs (50). Further a single positive skin test fails to induce positive serologic tests (3, 22, 31, 41). However frequently repeated positive skin tests at 1 to 2 week intervals have induced positive colloidal agglutination tests (22, 41), complement fixation tests (31, 41) and precipitin tests (31).

It is unlikely that skin testing significantly influences the serologic results of clinical and epidemiologic studies such as those described in this chapter. Repeated positive skin tests rarely if at all are performed at such short intervals as those mentioned above. There is little if any indication for repeating a skin test if one has been positive a short time before. Nevertheless since it has been shown that a positive skin test in an already skin test positive indi-

yeast phase complex and histoplasmin. The 0.1 mole fraction reacted with sera from early stages of histoplasmosis and cross reacted with serum from early coccidioidomycosis and cutaneous blastomycosis. The 0.1 mole fraction was more concentrated in the histoplasmin and reacted with serum from late but not early stages of histoplasmosis; it did not cross react with serum from cases of coccidioidomycosis or blastomycosis.

Generalization from these data of Campbell should not be made because of the small number of antisera tested and because only one lot each of fractionated yeast phase and histoplasmin were studied. Other lots of these antigens similarly fractionated might yield different results. An intimation that this might be so lies in the observation cited earlier that histoplasmin has been shown to react with acute or early stage serum in the complement fixation test as well as in the precipitation and colloidal agglutination tests. Also yeast phase antigen has been shown to react with late stage serum.

Further study of fractions of Histoplasma substances (yeast cells and histoplasmin) would be desirable. Since these crude complexes represent antigenic mixtures, purified fractions of them may yield more specific and possibly more sensitive antigens. However the spectrum of observed antibody responses in histoplasmosis suggests that the crude antigenic complexes are more liable to detect the presence of one or more of the several species of antibody than would a purified antigen which reacts with only one species of antibody. If this latter concept is valid with purified fractions as antigens, even more tests than now are recommended would be necessary for adequate serologic screening and diagnosis.

VIII Relationship of Serology and Skin Test

A Onset and Duration of Serology, Relative to Skin Test

In general the histoplasmin skin test becomes positive (at 2 to 3 weeks) before the serologic tests (at 3 to 4 weeks) following initial infection. An excellent example of this is the case study of Rubin, Lehan and Furcolow (23) in which the skin test was found to be positive 4 days after the onset of illness and 18 days after exposure to infection. About 2 weeks after the onset of illness the initially

negative serology became positive. Similar case studies are described by Salvin and Furcolow (30).

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influence upon serologic results. Repeated skin testing at short intervals may influence serologic results in skin test positive individuals and should be avoided.

(9) There is no reliable prognostic titer or pattern. Negative to high titers may be obtained at all stages of infection with each test.

(10) Standardized reagents are necessary for valid serologic results. Serology is best performed in laboratories experienced with these tests.

(11) Isolation of *H. capsulatum* by culture methods is the most valid diagnostic criterion of histoplasmosis.

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vidual can stimulate the production of serologically detectable antibodies it appears prudent both to obtain serum for serology prior to repeat skin testing with histoplasmin and to avoid needless skin testing of known skin test positive individuals

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

(1) The serology of histoplasmosis has been reviewed with an attempt made to avoid schematic generalizations. Appropriate references for the technics of the various tests are indicated. All the serologic tests subjected to clinical trial have proved to be of value

(2) The precipitin and collodion agglutination tests yield similar results and tend to be positive earlier and for a more transient period than the complement fixation tests. This pattern is not constant however and any complement fixation test may be positive in early stages of disease and other tests be negative

(3) The complement fixation test with histoplasmin antigen appears to be the test most likely to be positive in old or inactive appearing disease

(4) The sensitivity of the tests varies not only with the stage of disease represented by the serum but also with different sera from the same stage of disease. In addition different lots of an antigen influence the sensitivity and specificity of a given test. Therefore the performance of more than one test (e.g. precipitin or collodion agglutination plus yeast phase and histoplasmin complement fixation) is of more diagnostic value than any single test

(5) A changing titer as well as a significant titer has diagnostic value

(6) Cross reactions occur with other fungus (*Blastomyces* and *Coccidioides*) antigens and their antisera. Homologous reactions usually can be distinguished from heterologous reactions either by single absolute diagnostic titers or by the method of differential serum titrations. When indicated tests with heterologous antigens should be performed

(7) Purified antigenic fractions are not practicable at present

(8) Skin testing as usually performed has no significant

influence upon serologic results. Repeated skin testing at short intervals may influence serologic results in skin test positive individuals and should be avoided.

(9) There is no reliable prognostic titer or pattern. Negative to high titers may be obtained at all stages of infection with each test.

(10) Standardized reagents are necessary for valid serologic results. Serology is best performed in laboratories experienced with these tests.

(11) Isolation of *H. capsulatum* by culture methods is the most valid diagnostic criterion of histoplasmosis.

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THE HISTOPLASMIN SKIN TEST

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The relation of the histoplasmin test to histoplasmosis is as far as is known analogous to the relation of the tuberculin test to tuberculosis and the coccidioidin test to coccidioidomycosis. The histoplasmin test however came into use several years later than the coccidioidin test and more than 50 years after the tuberculin test. It is therefore not surprising that much of our knowledge and many assumptions about the histoplasmin test are based on earlier experience with other skin tests and particularly on the extensive research studies made on the tuberculin test during the last ten years or so.

The rationale of the histoplasmin test is that after infection with *H. capsulatum* the tissues become sensitized to histoplasmin. The delayed type of reaction—an indurated erythematous area which reaches its maximum size in two to four days after intracutaneous injection of the antigen—theoretically signifies infection either past or present. Absence of such a response theoretically signifies no infection. In practice however the histoplasmin test has its limitations as do most biological tests. In some instances it is difficult to determine whether or not a reaction is present. Infection with other fungi may cause reactions which cannot be distinguished from those produced by histoplasma infection and occasionally the characteristic reaction is absent even though there is evidence that the subject has been infected.

Notwithstanding its limitations histoplasmin testing has been a major factor in pointing the way in the accumulation of knowledge about histoplasmosis. Results of the first skin testing studies reported in 1915 indicated that sensitivity to histoplasmin was highly prevalent in some geographic areas and apparently absent in others (28) and that in areas of high prevalence pulmonary calcification was associated far more often with histoplasmin sensitivity than with tuberculin sensitivity (28, 3). From these and later

studies it became evident that histoplasmosis is not a rare and fatal disease. Infection is widespread and usually benign; its prevalence is largely related to geographic factors. Infection frequently results in pulmonary calcification, a point of practical importance in clarifying the problem of pulmonary calcification in tuberculin non-reactors—a problem that had obvious implications for the use of the tuberculin test in tuberculosis control work.

Advances in the epidemiology of histoplasmosis may well depend on further developments in histoplasmin testing. One of the problems is to determine how specific reactions can be distinguished from nonspecific or cross reactions caused by infection with other organisms. As the frequency of cross reactions varies with geographic locality, the percentage of reactors to histoplasmin can not always be used as an index of the prevalence of histoplasma infection.

TECHNIC OF THE HISTOPLASMIN TEST

The histoplasmin test is ordinarily given by injecting 0.1 ml of an appropriate dilution of a standardized antigen into the most superficial layer of the skin of the forearm. If the injection is intracutaneous, as it should be, a small bleb is raised in the skin. As the size of the bleb will vary with the depth of injection (29), the 0.1 ml volume should be measured as exactly as possible by using the fine calibrations on the barrel of a 1 ml syringe. The histoplasmin test is a quantitative, not a qualitative test, and it is perhaps fortunate that few serious attempts have been made to simplify it by substituting for the intracutaneous procedure an even less precise qualitative procedure, such as some form of a patch test.

Histoplasmin, like tuberculin and coccidioidin, may adhere to or be adsorbed onto the surfaces of needles, syringes, and glassware or containers used in preparing or storing the antigen. Chemically clean glassware or, preferably, all new glassware should therefore be used to avoid possible contamination of the histoplasmin by other antigens.

In unsensitized persons, the histoplasmin test generally evokes no reaction; the only sign that a test has been given is a tiny mark caused by the trauma of the needle. In the sensitized person, an

area of infiltration (induration) usually surrounded by an erythematous flush begins to appear at the site of injection within 24 hours reaches its maximum size between the second and fourth day and then gradually disappears. Reading of the reaction is therefore made at either 48 or 72 hours after the injection. The area of induration should be palpated carefully and its widest transverse diameter measured with a millimeter ruler. The measurement is recorded for as is shown later the size of the reaction is important in its interpretation. Erythema without palpable induration may also be measured and recorded but its significance as an index of histoplasma infection has not been carefully studied.

The histoplasmin reaction is indistinguishable in appearance from the reaction to tuberculin or to coccidioidin. Very large reactions, bullae, necrosis or lymphangitis occasionally seen with tuberculin reactions are much less frequent with the dilution of histoplasmin ordinarily recommended for skin testing.

THE SKIN TEST ANTIGEN HISTOPLASMIN

The first report of a skin test for histoplasmosis was published in 1941 by Van Pernis *et al* (39) who used an antigen prepared from a culture filtrate of *H. capsulatum* grown in dextrose broth. Zarafonitis and Lindberg also in 1941 reported the preparation of an antigen from a culture filtrate and proposed that the antigen be called histoplasmin (43). In 1945 Emmons *et al* of the Public Health Service described the preparation of several lots of histoplasmin.

The histoplasmin used in our investigations was prepared by growing strains of *H. capsulatum* on a synthetic broth medium made according to the formula recommended by Dr. C. E. Smith (36) for the preparation of coccidioidin.

1 Asparagin	—	—	14.00 gm
■ potassium phosphate c p (K_2HPO_4)			1.51 gm
Sodium citrate c p ($N_2C_6H_5O_7 \cdot 5\frac{1}{2}H_2O$)	—	—	0.90 gm
Magnesium sulphate (U.S.P.) ($MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$)			1.50 gm
Ferric nitrate (U.S.P.) VIII (Scales)	—	—	0.30 gm
Dextrose of the grade known as Ceflose (U.S.P.)			10.00 gm
Glycerine c p (U.S.P.)	—	—	25.00 gm
Water to make	—	—	1,000.00 ml

This is similar to the medium used in making tuberculin. Experience has shown that this culture medium itself does not sensitize or elicit nonspecific reactions. The medium was dispensed in 3 liter Erlenmeyer flasks 1500 ml per flask and autoclaved. Bits of dry mycelium from agar slant cultures of *H. capsulatum* were floated on the surface of the broth and the inoculated cultures were then incubated in a dark cupboard at room temperature for periods varying from 2 to 4 months (in one lot 7 months). At the end of the incubation period the flask was shaken to immerse all the floating mycelium and on the following day the broth was filtered through a Berkefeld N filter and tested for sterility. Merthiolate was added to give a final concentration of 1:10,000 and the material was bottled without either concentration or restoration to original volume. The color of the filtrate was a clear amber. (12)

Results with the lot identified as H 3 prepared according to these specifications were reported by Emmons *et al* from studies on infected and uninfected guinea pigs and also on hospitalized mental patients (12). On Emmons' recommendation Palmer used the 1:1000 dilution of H 3 for testing student nurses in various parts of the country (28). On empirical grounds the 1:1000 dilution appeared to be satisfactory because a high percentage of reactors was found in some areas and a negligible percentage in others. Christie and Peterson at Vanderbilt University also reported satisfactory results from testing children in Tennessee with a 1:100 dilution of the histoplasmin they had prepared from a broth culture filtrate (8). Subsequently a number of other workers both in the United States and other countries have prepared histoplasmin but the products most widely used have been the series designated as H 15, H 10 and H 42 prepared by Howell of the Public Health Service (35). His method of preparation was very similar to that of Emmons and each successive lot was standardized and the potency adjusted so the dilution used for testing was as nearly as possible the same as the 1:1000 dilution of Emmons' H 3.

Histoplasmin H 42 prepared in 1947 was made by pooling three separate lots in order to obtain one product in sufficient quantity to last for a number of years (35). An estimated several hundred thousand tests have already been given in this and other

countries with H-42 and several million more tests can be given with the amount still available (30). H-42 has been used since 1952 by the Biologics Control Laboratory of the National Institutes of Health as Reference Histoplasmin No. 1 for the standardization of products from other sources (42).

Standardization

The Laboratory of Biologics Control prepared minimum requirements for the production of histoplasmin in 1952 (27). According to Workman and Hottle these requirements should ensure that every laboratory which plans to distribute histoplasmin not only is capable of producing a product which is acceptable to the clinician from the viewpoint of purity and safety but also continues to produce a product of uniform potency (42). The requirements specify that either human subjects or sensitized guinea pigs may be used for potency tests carried out by means of intracutaneous tests with serial two fold dilutions of both the reference product supplied by the National Institutes of Health and the product under test. If guinea pigs are used four adequately sensitized animals are considered necessary for a satisfactory test (42).

Stability

Undiluted stock histoplasmin stored in the refrigerator (at about 5 C) does not appear to lose its potency over a period of years (19-30). There is evidence however that dilutions are less stable than the undiluted antigen particularly if subjected to light or to temperatures above refrigeration. For that reason use of diluted histoplasmin for more than eight weeks is generally not recommended.

Dosage

The dose of histoplasmin for skin testing is expressed in terms of the dilution of the particular product which in a volume of 0.1 ml has a potency adjusted to match the potency of 0.1 ml of the Reference Histoplasmin. For some products this may mean that the original histoplasmin must be diluted by 1:100 or 1:1000 or some other ratio to give the appropriate dosage for the skin test in 0.1 ml. For H-42 for example the concentration of the original

histoplasmin was adjusted so that a 1:100 dilution of the adjusted stock material contains the appropriate dosage.

Although the 1:100 dilution of H-12 (or other histoplasmins adjusted to have an equivalent potency) is currently accepted as satisfactory for skin testing of human populations, it should be realized that this dose was arrived at empirically. Recent studies suggest that more precise results might be obtained with a slightly stronger concentration (30). Basically, however, the question of the potency of a skin test antigen can not be considered apart from the question of its specificity.

Specificity

The specificity of histoplasmin has been studied in laboratory animals experimentally infected with the homologous and several heterologous fungi, including *Blastomyces dermatitidis*, *Coccidioides immitis* and *Histoplasma capsulatum*. Emmons *et al.* (12) reported cross reactions between all four of the corresponding antigens, and a particularly high degree of cross between histoplasmin and blastomycin. Subsequent investigations by Howell (20) focused attention on the relation between what he called the critical titer of the antigen and the frequency of cross reactions, showing that the frequency and size of cross reactions are related to the dosage, the particular antigen used for testing and the degree of sensitivity of the test animals.

Attempts to isolate the active principle from histoplasmin have been reported by Cross and Howell (4) who found that a polysaccharide fraction free of protein gave reactions in guinea pigs experimentally infected with either *Histoplasma* or *Blastomyces*. When used in appropriate doses the polysaccharide antigen was relatively specific for histoplasma infection. Dyson and Evans subsequently reported from their experimental studies of histoplasmin prepared from the yeast phase of the fungus that, although the skin test antigen was originally thought to be polysaccharide, the extraction of aqueous solutions with chloroform in order to remove protein was also found to destroy the reactivity of the antigen. The polysaccharide which remained following this treatment appeared to be inert in the delayed skin reactions. This points up the need for additional chemical studies which are now in prog-

ress (5) More recently however Knight and Marcus (21) have been able to extract specific soluble polysaccharides from yeast phase broth cultures of *H. capsulatum*

Results of field studies in human beings (11 31 38 14) have paralleled those from the laboratory although in field work it is rarely possible to know as it is in the laboratory whether an individual or a group of individuals has been infected with one particular organism with several different organisms or with none at all Histoplasmin appears to be a much less specific antigen than for example coccidioidin that is the histoplasmin test elicits a response not only in persons infected with *Histoplasma* but in a substantial proportion (in the neighborhood of 40%) of those infected with *Coccidioides* as well Coccidioidin in contrast elicits reactions in only about 2% of the histoplasma infected There is ample evidence that histoplasmin and tuberculin do not cross react The latter part of this chapter will deal in greater detail with the characteristics of specific (homologous) and nonspecific (heterologous or cross) reactions to histoplasmin based on results of field studies in human populations

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF HISTOPLASMIN SENSITIVITY

When the histoplasmin test first came into general use reactions were read as positive or negative A positive was defined as a reaction of 5 or more mm of induration taken to indicate infection by *Histoplasma* a negative as less than 5 mm indicating no infection That criterion was being used at the time to classify tuberculin and coccidioidin reactions and was simply taken over quite arbitrarily for classifying histoplasmin reactions Although we now know that the 5 mm criterion is often inapplicable it unquestionably served a very useful purpose in establishing certain basic characteristics of histoplasmin sensitivity and histoplasma infection which pointed the way for many of the later contributions from laboratory clinical and pathological studies

Time of Appearance of Sensitivity

In experimental animals skin sensitivity to histoplasmin apparently develops within a few weeks after infection with *H. capsulatum* (20). In human beings the time interval between infection and appearance of skin sensitivity is also probably a few weeks as would be expected if histoplasmosis is analogous to tuberculosis in this respect. Loosli's report of an epidemic in an Indiana farm family indicates that the histoplasmin reaction had developed by the eighth week after exposure to the source of infection (23). Observations on a small group of persons who developed clinical histoplasmosis shortly after visiting a bat infested cave near the village of Sarare in the State of Lara, Venezuela reported by Campins and his associates (2) showed histoplasmin sensitivity to be present by the end of the fourth week after exposure. Similar time intervals have been reported by Murray *et al* (26) in the Transvaal although Sabin's observations on a group of men involved in a localized epidemic in Cincinnati (33) suggest that the time of appearance of sensitivity may be quite variable.

Duration of Sensitivity

The duration of skin sensitivity to histoplasmin seems to be many years perhaps lifelong according to the impression of many workers. Smith for example cites six persons from the midwest who after living for 10 to 20 years in California still retain their histoplasmin sensitivity presumably in the absence of exposure to *Histoplasma* during that interval (37). Furcolow and Grayston made a follow up study in 1953 of 94 out of 116 persons involved in localized epidemics of histoplasmosis as long as nine years previously and reported that in all 94 instances sensitivity to histoplasmin was present at the time of the follow up (15). In contrast Zeidberg has reported a sharp rise in the prevalence of reactors among children but a gradually declining prevalence with age in the adult population of an endemic area; he conjectures that the lower prevalence among adults may mean loss of acquired sensitivity less exposure to the sensitizing agent or the acquisition of immunity (44). So far as is known at the present time however no systematic long term studies have yet been made that would provide

firm data on the question of the duration of histoplasmin sensitivity

Suppression of Sensitivity

Sensitivity may be suppressed during an acute illness as well as in the terminal stages of an illness. As shown by Furcolow and his associates some years ago (13) from studies of 304 patients on the critical list at a municipal hospital in Kansas City depression of skin sensitivity appears to be a function of the critical illness itself—it is not specific to a particular disease—and occurs with both tuberculin and histoplasmin sensitivity. Age also seems to be a factor as depression of sensitivity was found to increase in frequency with increasing age of the critically ill patient.

Degree of Sensitivity and Infecting Dose

A relation between the degree of sensitivity and the dose of infecting organisms has not been demonstrated in human beings and would on the face of it be an extremely difficult relation to study directly. Results of extensive research on tuberculin sensitivity has indicated that the degree of sensitivity exhibited by an individual is determined largely by familial factors governing his capacity to develop sensitivity (32). Neither the size of the infecting dose nor the frequency of repeated infections appears to have much influence on the degree of sensitivity as estimated by the size of the skin reaction in humans (10, 6). There are some indications that here again the analogy may hold between tuberculin and histoplasmin sensitivity (31, 8).

FACTORS AFFECTING ACQUISITION OF SENSITIVITY

Place of Residence

The prevalence of sensitivity to histoplasmin in human populations varies widely with geographic locality. As shown by the map in Figure 1 based on results of skin testing surveys reported in the literature up to 1945 (10) histoplasmin sensitivity is highly prevalent in parts of the Americas with scattered low prevalence areas in some regions of Africa and Southeastern Asia. Few if any reactors have been found in Europe, the eastern Mediterranean or the Asiatic countries from which studies have been reported.

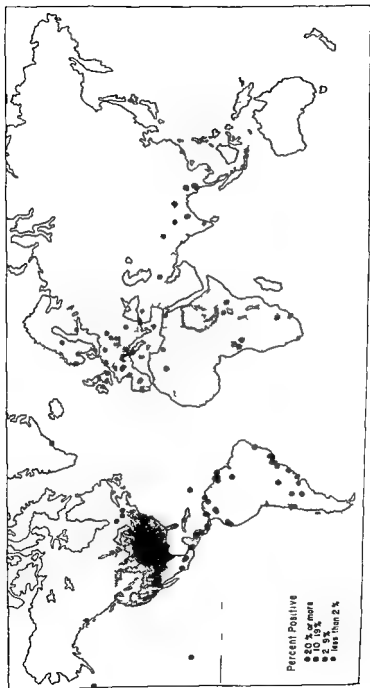


Fig 1 Percentages of histoplasmin reactions reported as positive from surveys conducted in various parts of the world

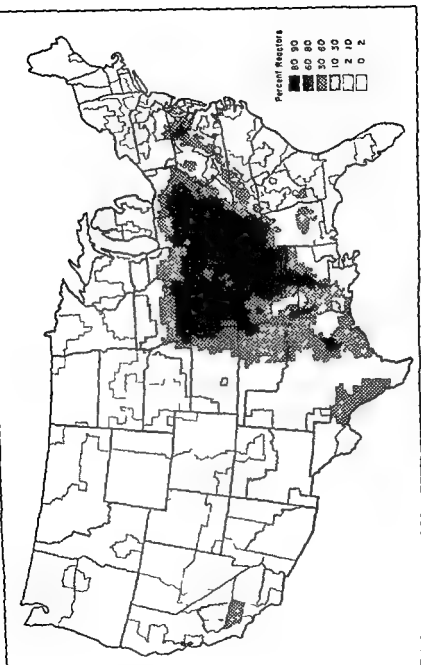


Fig 2 Percentages of histoplasmin reactions (5 or more millimeters) among young adults lifetime residents of single counties of the United States

A more detailed map of the geographic distribution of histoplasmin sensitivity in the United States is presented in Figure 2. The map shows the distribution of counties and groups of counties according to the prevalence of reactions to histoplasmin measuring 5 or more mm among a total of 68,152 young adult men and women tested between the years 1915 and 1951 in studies carried out by the Public Health Service (25). Only lifetime residents of single counties were included in the material to give a reasonably accurate picture of geographic variations in the prevalence of histoplasmin sensitivity. The area of highest prevalence lies in the Eastcentral states where the frequencies of reactors in some localities exceed 80%. The frequencies decrease with increasing distance from this endemic focus. Histoplasmin sensitivity is essentially absent in lifetime residents of New England, the South Atlantic, and entire Northwestern regions of the country.

When the map in Figure 2 was prepared, the criterion of 5 mm was used in estimating the frequency of positive reactions although it was recognized that a fair proportion of the positive reactions found in the Southwestern states probably represented nonspecific or cross reactions caused by *Coccidioides* infection. More recent studies (11, 31, 8) have confirmed that interpretation and have in addition shown that many of the reactions in the region centering in eastern Texas are also nonspecific although they cannot be ascribed to coccidioidal infection.

Numerous reports have been made on geographic variations in the prevalence of histoplasmin sensitivity within single counties (7, 9, 17, 34). In Jackson County, Iowa, for example, the percentage of reactors ranged from 7 to 28 among school children living in the 18 townships of the county (17). Differences of similar magnitude were reported from Montgomery County, Maryland, where within a distance of no more than 20 miles the reactor rate among high school students jumped from about 14% to more than 60% (7). Even sharper differences were observed in studies of school children in the city of Dalton, Georgia (1). Within a radius of only 3 miles children who lived in one particular section of the city showed a frequency of reactors twice as high as those who lived in other sections. Such abrupt changes in reactor rates over very short distances

seem to point to highly concentrated sources of infection. Whatever the mechanism of transmission, infection would seem to depend on direct exposure to the place where the fungus exists (2, 15, 23, 26, 41).

Other Factors

Race, sex, occupation, socio-economic status, rural or urban residence and other factors may influence the prevalence of histoplasmin sensitivity, but it is difficult to isolate their effect from the overriding effect of geographic factors associated with place of residence. The frequency of reactors tends to be slightly higher in males than in females after the age of about 12 years; it is often somewhat higher in whites than in Negroes in this country, and it is generally higher in farm than in urban residents. However, in the study of Georgia school children referred to above (1), a much higher frequency was found in children living in a well-to-do section of the city of Dalton than in the surrounding rural areas.

Although concentration of histoplasmin reactors in some families and not in others has been observed repeatedly, the possibility of familial susceptibility or resistance to infection obviously is difficult to separate from the strong influence of a common environment on family groups.

Manos has summarized a number of studies of the relation between age and the prevalence of histoplasmin reactors (24). Regardless of the prevalence of sensitivity in a community, apparently very few children become sensitive in the first few years of life. From the second or third year of age there is a progressive increase in the frequency of reactors up until adulthood, but the rate of increase varies with the geographic area. In some areas, of course, the rate may be very low or zero, while in high endemic areas the annual rate with which nonreactors become reactors to histoplasmin may be as high as 10 per cent.

INTERPRETATION OF REACTIONS TO HISTOPLASMIN

Theoretically, a histoplasmin test might be expected to produce definite, clearly characteristic reactions in persons who have been infected by *Histoplasma* and no reaction in persons who have

not been infected. In practice however errors in giving the test variations in the size of reactions and other factors make it difficult in some instances to judge whether an individual reaction should be interpreted to mean infection or no infection. The commonly used definition that a reaction of 5 or more mm in diameter indicates infection and one measuring less than 5 mm indicates no infection should be regarded as only a crude and sometimes quite inadequate criterion.

The problem is illustrated in Figures 3, 4 and 5. Figure 3 shows the results of testing 1018 high school students in Whitfield and Murray Counties, Georgia with the 1:100 dilution of histoplasmin H-42 (9). The size of the reaction is indicated by the horizontal scale and the percentage of the total group with reactions of specified size is indicated by the height of each column. At first glance it can be seen that the frequency distribution has two peaks one at 0.1 mm and the other at 12-13 mm. From the form of the

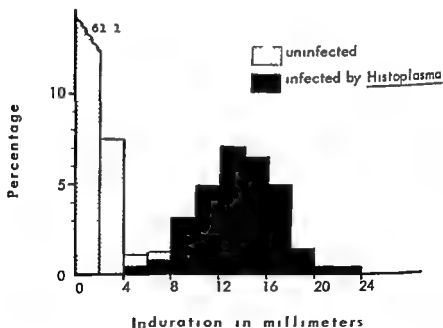


Fig 3 Frequency distribution of sizes of reactions to histoplasmin for 1018 high school students in Whitfield and Murray Counties, Georgia

distribution it appears that according to their size the reactions fall into two groups which overlap in the range between 4 and 8 mm. Reactions of 2 and 3 mm would seem to belong with the left hand group with those of 0 and 1 mm and reactions of 8 or more mm with the right hand group. Reactions of 4 to 8 mm appear to represent a mixture with most of the 4 and 5 mm reactions probably belonging to the left hand group and most of the 6 and 7 mm reactions probably belonging to the right hand group. The point between 5 and 6 mm thus appears to be about the best place to separate the total distribution into two groups. Thus the 1:100 dilution of H-42 appears to discriminate with some precision this particular population into two groups. Nevertheless it should be emphasized that individual reactions of 5 and 6 mm and some of those measuring a few millimeters larger or smaller cannot be allocated with much precision to either group.

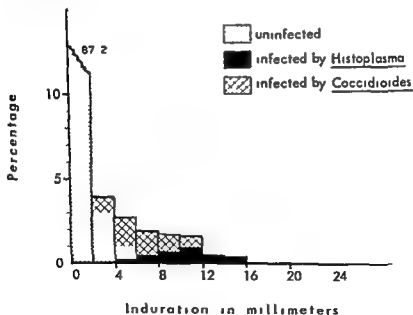


Fig. 4. Frequency distribution of sizes of reactions to histoplasmin for 4,521 Navy recruits: lifetime residents of southern California, Arizona, New Mexico and western Texas.

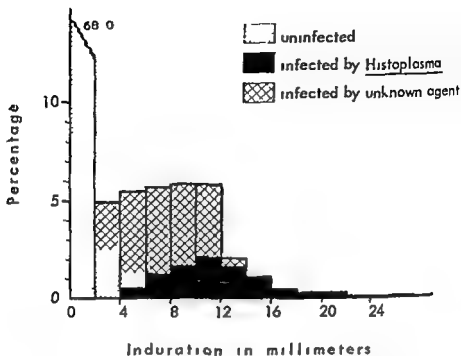


Fig 5 Frequency distribution of sizes of reactions to histoplasmin for 5 636 Navy recruits lifetime residents of western Kansas and Oklahoma eastern Texas and western Louisiana

The next question is whether or not the two groups discriminated by the test correspond to the infected and uninfected segments of the population. For this purpose some criterion of infection must be used which is independent of the skin test itself. While serological and mycological methods are available as diagnostic tests in persons recently infected or with clinically active disease, one of the few signs of past infection with *Histoplasma* in a healthy person is x-ray evidence of pulmonary calcification (or infiltration). Thus if other causes of pulmonary calcification, notably tuberculosis and coccidioidomycosis, can be identified and excluded, then the relation between calcification and size of reaction to histoplasmin can give a rough indication of whether or not the two groups distinguished by the skin test correspond to the infected and uninfected segments of the population.

The results of such an analysis for the students of Whitfield Murray Counties is presented in Table I. The 70 mm photofluorograms taken of all students were read independently by two chest physicians without knowledge of the skin test results. Films interpreted as showing either calcification or infiltration by both readers were as shown in the table, highly concentrated in the group with reactions to histoplasmin measuring at least 6 mm. 44 out of 307 (14%) had pulmonary findings. One of the 11 also reacted to tuberculin and none reacted to coccidioidin. In contrast only 2 out of 711 students (0.3%) with small or zero reactions had pulmonary findings. The x-ray findings thus support interpretation of the two groups distinguished by the histoplasmin test as corresponding to the infected and uninfected segments of the study population.

Unfortunately the interpretation of histoplasmin reactions is sometimes much less clear-cut than it appears to be for the students

TABLE I

RELATION BETWEEN SIZE OF REACTION TO HISTOPLASMIN AND FREQUENCY OF PULMONARY CALCIFICATIONS OR INFILTRATIONS AMONG HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS
WHITFIELD-MURRAY COUNTIES, GEORGIA

<i>Size of Reaction to Histoplasmin (in millimeters)</i>	<i>Number of Students Tested</i>	<i>Number with Pulmonary Findings</i>
0-1	623	0
2-3	1	—
4-5	12	—
6-7	13	—
8-9	33	3
10-11	50	3
12-13	70	15
14-15	66	10
16-17	81	8
18-19	14	2
20-21	4	1
22-23	4	—
Total	1018	46

Includes one person with a reaction of 11 mm to the 5 TU tuberculin test

in Whitfield Murray Counties. The frequency histogram presented in Figure 4 illustrates one type of complication that is when some of the population being tested have been infected with *Coccidioides immitis*. The material for this graph was obtained from tests given to a group of young men, Navy recruits, as they entered the Navy Training Center at San Diego, California (8-11-29-31). Results are included in the figure only for recruits who had lived all their lives in the endemic coccidioidomycosis region in the Southwest—southern California, Arizona, New Mexico and western Texas.

The form of the distribution of reactions in Figure 4 differs strikingly from that seen in the previous figure. A relative increase in the proportion of small reactions has completely obliterated the point at which two groups could be separated. In fact, as shown by the shading of the columns, we are dealing here not with two groups but with three: 1) those not infected by either *Histoplasma* or *Coccidioides*; 2) those infected by *Histoplasma* but not by *Coccidioides*; and 3) those presumably infected by *Coccidioides* but not by *Histoplasma*.

The first group have reactions similar to the uninfected group in Whitfield Murray Counties: most of them have no reaction or a very small one. They are classified as uninfected. In the second and relatively small group the distribution of reactions according to their size is similar to that of the infected group in Whitfield Murray Counties: their reactions are attributed to histoplasma infection. Finally, the persons in the third group had larger reactions to coccidioidin than to histoplasmin, which is one indication that they may have had a coccidioidal rather than histoplasma infection, but more importantly their reactions to histoplasmin are generally smaller than the reactions of persons living in the *Histoplasma* endemic area. These small histoplasmin reactions are interpreted as cross reactions.

Figure 5 shows the distribution of histoplasmin reactions in Navy recruits from another part of the country—western Kansas and Oklahoma, eastern Texas and western Louisiana. Here again the distribution is interpreted as representing three different kinds of reactions: 1) negatives; 2) specific reactions caused by histoplasma

infections and 3) cross reactions. The cross reactions although similar in size to those attributed to coccidioidal infection in the southwest can not be caused by *Coccidioides* in this region as less than 2% of the total group of recruits reacted to coccidioidin. Moreover these reactions were found to be associated with a very low frequency of pulmonary calcification. They must represent infection with some other organism most likely a fungus which does not produce pulmonary calcification and whose identity is not known at the present time.

The foregoing material illustrates how the classification of histoplasmin reactions according to an arbitrary criterion such as 5 mm or more for a positive reaction and less than 5 mm for a negative reaction may be quite satisfactory in some situations but quite misleading in others. Place of residence can not be disregarded as it has an important influence on the frequency of infections that cause cross reactions with histoplasmin. As a consequence it is a mistake to expect that a simple rule can be laid down which will apply equally well for the interpretation of histoplasmin reactions where ever they are found.

The interpretation of histoplasmin reactions for groups of persons must take into consideration the results of the study of the frequency distribution of the sizes of the reactions carefully measured of a representative sample of the residents of the locality. For individuals account must also be taken of past history of residence. Histoplasmin reactions in persons who have lived in the southwest for example may be cross reactions caused by coccidioidal infection. If the histoplasmin reaction is large say 12 or more mm it is not likely to be a cross reaction but the smaller the histoplasmin reaction the more likely it is to be a cross reaction and testing also with coccidioidin becomes increasingly more important to clarify the source of the sensitivity. As knowledge of different sources of cross reactions increases it seems inevitable that a battery of antigens will have to be used unless of course specific antigens become available and the problem of cross reactions then becomes only of historical interest.

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THE IDENTIFICATION OF HISTOPLASMA IN SMears AND MICROSECTIONS BY STAINING METHODS*

ROBERT W. MOWRY AND J. H. FRENKEL

I RECENT PROGRESS IN THE DEMONSTRATION OF HISTOPLASMA AND OTHER FUNGI IN PATHOLOGIC TISSUES

It is a credit to earlier workers that so many cases were diagnosed as histoplasmosis by mere recognition of the organisms in paraffin sections stained only by hematoxylin and eosin. We now have better methods. The great promise of modern histochemical procedures for the study of fungi in pathologic tissues was first suggested in 1947 by Lillie (20). In this communication he described the greatly enhanced demonstration of fungi afforded in paraffin sections by application of the Bauer reaction (2). This consisted of chromic acid oxidation followed by exposure to Schiff's leucofuchsin reagent. The Bauer reaction is now believed to depend on the oxidation to aldehydes of vicinal hydroxyl groups plentiful in most but not all polysaccharides. The following is a quotation describing the results when the Bauer reaction was applied to paraffin sections containing *Histoplasma*. "Organisms were readily identified as fine red purplish rings surrounding a clear zone about the centrally placed blue or pale blue nucleus." (Authors note: any blue coloration of nuclei would be due to the hematoxylin counterstain.) After salivary digestion the *Histoplasma* capsules were still Bauer positive. Ptyalin and diastase tests gave the same results in the five animals so tested. From these observations Lillie had shown that the cell wall or so-called capsule contained poly

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negligible staining of other tissue constituents produced sharper contrast of fungi against tissue. Cridley (1952) combined the Bauer stain with Gomori's aldehyde fuchsin in empirical stain found to color hyphae of certain fungi not well shown by the PAS (12). A yellow counterstain was used to heighten the contrast of organisms with the background. The various oxidant Schiff methods produced such improved results that Puckett (39) and Zimmerman (16) were able to show that many so-called tuberculomas of the lung were actually instances of old presumably inactive histoplasmosis. In cases previously suspected as tuberculous many such lesions contained structures consistent in appearance with Histoplasma when none were visible with routine stains and cultures failed.

Histoplasma are not as easily detected in pathologic tissues by the PAS or the Cridley stain as the other yeast like fungi. In cases of histoplasmosis the organisms are often colored but moderately by the usual PAS and the pathologist may have difficulty in the interpretation of such sections. For this reason many pathologists now prefer a procedure devised by Gomori (1946) (9) and applied to fungi by Grocott (1955) (13). This consists of chromic acid oxidation followed by methenamine silver instead of Schiff's leuco fuchsin and is derived from the Bauer reaction. It has been known that the oxidation products from some polysaccharides—though not all—can be colored by alkaline silver nitrate instead of Schiff's reagent. Happily methenamine silver after chromic acid produced stronger coloration of Histoplasma than usually seen after oxidant Schiff methods while at the same time producing less coloration of the tissues generally. This resulted in greatly improved contrast in most instances. Grocott's method is now considered by many workers to be the method of choice for the identification of Histoplasma (1, 43, 44, 47).

Potenza and Feo (1956) called attention to the fact that fungi were often birefringent in paraffin sections both unstained and after the H&E and PAS stains (38). While the presence of fungi in tissues is occasionally revealed in brilliant fashion by microscopic study under polarized light experience with this method is limited. We doubt that it will prove useful as a general means of detecting fungi in pathologic tissues. Very recent work by Sweeney (43, 44) and his

saccharide stainable by the aldehyde that resulted from oxidation with chromic acid. Lillie also showed that dead *Histoplasma*—lacking nuclei—could still be identified by staining the carbohydrate rich cell wall. In another subsequently studied animal, numerous Bauer positive rings without central nuclei were found in the foam cell granulation tissue where no *Histoplasma* could be found with azure eosin stains. This indicates that this method may be used to demonstrate non nucleated and presumably dead *Histoplasma* as well as the nucleated and presumably surviving forms. Important observations on other pathogenic fungi were also included in this paper that is replete with details concerning fungi, protozoa, as well as bacteria and even the staining of metazoa.

Beginning in 1950 a series of papers by Kligman and co workers from the Department of Dermatology at the University of Pennsylvania established the decisive value of the recently introduced periodic acid Schiff (PAS) reaction for the coloration of fungi in smears and tissue sections (17, 19). They believed that the PAS method was superior to all preexisting ones and should supplant the Bauer reaction. These workers recorded and illustrated the morphologic features revealed by the PAS reaction with the various common pathogenic fungi in both human and experimental pathologic lesions. Tissue forms of most fungi were deeply colored. But *Histoplasma* were not colored so deeply as the other pathogenic yeasts. Also *Actinomyces* and certain hyphae were poorly colored. In *Histoplasma* the nuclei were often colored by the PAS reaction but *the stronger and more consistent reaction was in the cell wall*. Budding forms of *Histoplasma* were more easily found in sections stained by the PAS. *More diastic conditions of periodic oxidation produced stronger coloration of cell walls of Histoplasma but weaker or negligible coloration of nuclei* (18). The publications by the University of Pennsylvania workers effectively published the value of oxidant Schiff methods for the histologic diagnosis of fungous infections, a principle first recognized by Lillie. Their use became virtually routine whenever granulomatous lesions were encountered by the pathologist.

But some workers began to prefer the Bauer reaction though inherently less sensitive than the PAS because the weaker or

obtained after such stains as Giemsa's applied to smears or imprints fixed briefly in Zenker formalin, mercuric precipitates should be removed before staining. When stains for carbohydrates are used fixatives that remove lipids are useful. Brief fixation of the smears in 95% to absolute ethanol, methanol or alcohol formalin is preferable to either staining or air-drying. Flaming of smears is known to be destructive to cytologic details in microorganisms. Air drying also distorts structure and may cause certain lipids to become Schiff positive. Oxidation of unsaturated lipids can produce aldehydes stainable with Schiff's leucofuchsin and conceivably hinder detection of fungi (11).

In smears stained by Wright's or Giemsa's one may suspect histoplasmosis from the finding of macrophages whose cytoplasm is enlarged and stuffed by numerous tiny, egg-shaped organisms with deeply staining nuclei each surrounded by a halo—the unstained cell wall or capsule (see Fig. 1). The organisms vary in size commonly ranging from 1 to 5 microns but most forms are usually 2-3 by 3-4 microns. Exceptionally large forms are seen only occasionally. The greater part of each organism consists of cytoplasm and nonstaining cell wall commonly called a capsule. The chromatin of *Histoplasma* seen in smears or imprints is rather complex and variable (6); commonly the chromatin forms an eccentric broken-circle or resembles a pair of parenthesis marks that do not quite touch (26). In paraffin sections the chromatin material of *Histoplasma* usually appears more simplified and smaller, probably as a result of shrinkage during fixation, dehydration and paraffin embedding. In smears and imprints protozoa are usually more ovoid or elongate and possess more uniform chromatin than *Histoplasma*. Recall also the important distinction used by Darling in excluding *Leishmania* by the failure to find any rod-shaped kinetoplasts. In the case of *Histoplasma* staining by one of the carbohydrate methods to be discussed later will reveal decisive coloration of the cell wall. Such carbohydrate methods would be especially rewarding in the study of smears from older lesions where nuclei of *Histoplasma* may be scarce or virtually absent. While *Histoplasma* reproduce in tissues by budding such budding is not usually detectable except when stains coloring the cell wall are used. Features of other yeast-like agents are discussed in IV.

co workers indicates that birefringence of *Histoplasma* was especially well seen when stained by methenamine silver after chromic acid. They regard birefringence of the organisms as a valuable confirmatory test shown to obtain in most of their cases of histoplasmosis (43-44). Typically such stained *Histoplasma* showed Maltese crosses in polarized light. Of interest in this connection is the recent finding by Klatzo and Geisler that the capsules of *Cryptococcus neoformans* showed much increased birefringence after staining with cresyl violet (16). We have extended these observations and find that capsules of *Cryptococci* are brightly birefringent when stained with any one of numerous metachromatic dyes (35). We also found that Alcian blue staining produces (red dish) birefringence in the capsules of *Cryptococci*. If of limited value as a primary means of detecting fungi, birefringence may be still useful as a supplementary observation in conjunction with particular staining methods. As many artifacts and some elements of pathologic tissues may also show birefringence use of this method requires much care.

II THE APPEARANCE OF HISTOPLASMA CAPSULATUM IN SMEARS AND TISSUE SECTIONS

A Smears

Histoplasma can and have been identified in smears made from bone marrow, blood, sputum or from such accessible lesions as ulcers of the tongue and elsewhere. Even in pathologic work more rapid diagnosis of histoplasmosis can be made from the study of smears taken from fresh surgical or autopsy specimens. More prompt recognition of histoplasmosis would allow proof by cultural studies, all too often neglected in human histoplasmosis. In the past such smears have usually been examined after such routine stains as Wright's stain, the Giemsa or a hematoxylin and eosin. But a higher incidence of recognition would be obtained probably by wider use of stains for carbohydrates such as the PAS, Gridley stain or chromic acid methenamine silver stain. Smears of bone marrow or blood can be prepared in the conventional manner. Imprints are made from more solid tissues by touching a freshly cut surface lightly with a clean glass slide. Good cytologic detail is

II In Paraffin Sections

In the routine microscopic study of surgical and autopsy specimens *Histoplasma* are easily overlooked. The organisms are not shown adequately by such stains as the hematoxylin and eosin. Even in active or early lesions of histoplasmosis organisms are not readily visible except when phagocytosed by macrophages or other cells of the reticulo-endothelial system e.g. the Kupffer cells of the liver. In such cells which may be stuffed literally with *Histoplasma* the organisms are recognized by their basophilic nuclei and perinuclear halos representing the unstained cell walls or capsules (see Fig 2). While such forms are highly suggestive better definition of *Histoplasma* results when the cell walls are stained. The organisms of older or healed lesions fail to show nuclear staining by hematoxylin as a general rule. The shells or cell walls of *Histoplasma* whose nuclei no longer stain with the H&E can only occasionally be suspected from their faint eosinophilic outlines smaller than those of red blood cells and sometimes showing birefringence. It is now known that *Histoplasma* are not exclusively intracellular but the extracellular forms when studied in the H&E or other oversight stain are easily confoundable with bacteria nuclear debris and tiny calcific particles. Only the nuclei of such forms should be basophilic. Staining of cell walls by hematoxylin is exceptional. Calcified *Histoplasma* leading to Schaumann like bodies were seen in hamsters by one of us (J. H. F.) but are suspect in other species. The reason such organisms are more easily seen in the cytoplasm of phagocytes is that the unstained halo surrounding nuclei of the organisms allows a better suggestion of their cell walls or so called capsules than is likely to occur when organisms are extracellular. A bacterial stain such as the Brown Brenn is useful in excluding bacteria because *Histoplasma* are seldom well stained by such methods. We have seen instances of phagocytosed cocci with such thick capsules that they have been mistaken for *Histoplasma*. The recognition of *Histoplasma* should not depend on the interpretation of sections stained by oversight methods such as the H&E. The various methods for coloring carbohydrates afford incomparably improved demonstration of *Histoplasma* as well as the other yeast like pathogens.

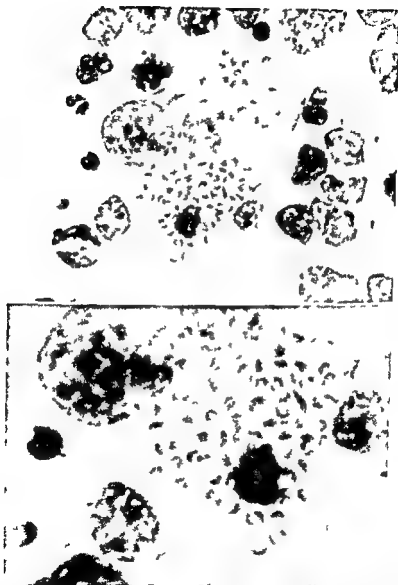


Fig 1 Smear of human bone marrow in disseminated histoplasmosis. *Wright's stain*. Organisms are seen in the cytoplasm of monocytes as chromatin rich bodies each surrounded by an unstained cell wall (A 1100x B 2100x). In B note that the nuclei of some *Histoplasma* have the form of bisected spheres.

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Fig 2 Section of human (formalin fixed) liver from case of disseminated histoplasmosis *H & E stain* (A 550 \times B 1050 \times) Most of the parenchyma in the field is displaced by Kupffer cells whose cytoplasm is gorged with Histo-plasma. Organisms are seen as rounded dark bodies each surrounded by an unstained cell wall

The presence of high concentrations of carbohydrate in cell walls of *Histoplasma* was first suggested by Kernohan who mentioned that organisms in one case were colored red by Best's carmine (1913). We have confirmed that the cell walls of *Histoplasma* are stainable with Best's carmine in nearly all cases (see Fig. 3). But the contrast of organisms against tissue obtained with Best's carmine is not as good as that produced by the more modern methods. The use of either Schiff's reagent or Gomori's methenamine silver after oxidation results in stronger coloration of the cell walls and greater contrast between tissue and organisms. When the cell walls are stained *Histoplasma* appear larger than in sections stained with just the H & E. The organisms are typically egg shaped and possess distinct walls or shells. There is no capsule external to the cell wall (1) as possessed by *Cryptococci*. The cytoplasm is usually colored less intensely and sometimes not at all. The nuclear material is often also stained along with the cell walls though seldom so intensely colored. But the coloration of nuclei by the



Fig. 3. Section of liver same case as Figure 2. Best's Carmine stain (550x). *Histoplasma* are seen as dense clusters of gray oval to circular bodies inside the cytoplasm of Kupffer cell. The cell wall and some nuclei of *Histoplasma* are weakly to moderately colored red but contrast is poor.

various carbohydrate methods is inconstant. It is often necessary to rely on finding only the typical stained shells. When a basophilic dye is used as a counterstain nuclei of *Histoplasma* will be colored if present. In older lesions the organisms possess no definite nuclei. Innumerable *Histoplasma* are revealed often by the oxidative methods when none are visible in duplicate sections stained with the H & I. Because diverse histological appearances are seen in histoplasmosis (3) such stains should always be used whenever the diagnostic problem of a granulomatous lesion or suspicion of histoplasmosis exists.

The specific advantage of the chromic acid methenamine silver method is that the organisms are intensely stained while the background usually remains colorless. While this may be true the Cridley method employing Schiff's reagent after chromic acid and certain modifications employing periodic acid to be presented later are still considered valuable. The specific recognition of budding is quite helpful but is usually possible only when the cell walls are stained (see Fig. 4).



Fig. 4. Budding forms of *Histoplasma* revealed by the chromic acid methenamine silver stain (1050x). A, B, and C are from the same liver shown in previous figures. C shows an exceptionally large budding organism. D, E, and F are from an encapsulated caseous adrenal mass in a case showing no definite lesions except in the adrenals. Tissue was fixed in formalin. Organisms in the latter case almost always lacked nuclei in sections stained by the H & I.

When the cell walls or so-called capsules of *Histoplasma* are made visible the organisms are more plentiful and no longer appear separated from one another. Probably as a result of phagocytosis one often finds multiple individual clusters of organisms whose shells are usually in contact. While some individual organisms are seen as isolated forms the tendency to clustering is helpful as such clusters are sometimes visible with low powers of the microscope. The most profitable place to look for organisms varies from case to case. In the very oldest lesions of the type studied by Puckett and Zimmerman the organisms are seldom seen except in the central part of caseous-calcific core of the lesion (39-46). It is seldom rewarding to look in the fibrous tissue forming the wall of the encapsulated lesion. In older descriptions of more active lesions many have said that organisms are found more frequently in the cellular reaction adjacent to necrotic foci. This probably means only that macrophages were found at the periphery and allowed intracellular forms to be seen. In some cases we have studied the organisms are found largely within areas of caseation. In cases of disseminated histoplasmosis organisms may be found throughout both in macrophages and extracellularly or localized in fixed reticulo-endothelial cells of such tissues as spleen, liver or lymph node. Organisms in more active lesions tend to have thinner cell walls and more prominent nuclear material. Compared with organisms of more acute or active lesions *Histoplasma* of older lesions often show cell walls that are unevenly thicker. Nuclear material is inconstant and scarce in organisms of very old lesions.

As *Histoplasma* may be very hard to demonstrate in such older lesions it is valuable to study sections cut at various levels. Tissue blocks from caseous areas (43-44) and from the central portions of encapsulated lesions are the most apt to reveal *Histoplasma*. While most of the organisms in a given case tend to be uniform some will show considerable variation in size (31-40). Rarely hyphal forms of *Histoplasma* are seen in tissues (31-47) in one case of histoplasmosis resulting in Addison's disease with severe hypothermia one of us (J. K. F.) saw hyphae in several organs. The occurrence of atypical forms of fungi in extensively necrotic lesions is not confined to histoplasmosis and has been noted for example

for *Coccidioides immitis* (42). Whenever hyphae are seen be careful to exclude the possibility of *Candida* (*Monilia*) whose yeast forms are usually associated with septate pseudo hyphae.

When the PAS stain is used there is so much background coloration produced that one cannot rely on examining the tissue under low powers of the microscope. We have many times found organisms at higher magnifications when such were hardly noticeable at lower magnification. It is the fairly deep staining of caseous tissue as well as the fibers and cells of chronic granulation tissue that tends to obscure the contrast between organisms and tissue. Contrast is better with the Gridley stain since the over all tissue coloration produced by chromic acid Schiff is much less. Also the metanil yellow counterstain makes the background yellow while leaving the organisms red. As a general rule the various cell granules colored by the oxidative Schiff methods are smaller and more solidly colored while *Histoplasma* are larger and possess sharply outlined deeply staining cell walls or shells. The cytoplasm of *Histoplasma* is also colored but usually with less intensity. While calcific particles are often colored moderately by the oxidative Schiff methods these tend to be non uniform in size and shape and lack the typical shells possessed by *Histoplasma*. Variants of the PAS producing stronger staining of the organisms—to be described—offer less difficulty in the exclusion of other structures and substances. While coloration of the nuclei of *Histoplasma* is helpful when present it is often absent and must not be relied upon.

There has been no systematic exploration of the effect of various fixatives upon the stainability of *Histoplasma*. Our own experience indicates that staining is stronger and more consistent in tissues fixed in formalin than by Zenker's or Helly's fixative. Based on experience with other polysaccharides alcohol or alcohol formalin fixation should also be most favorable to the preservation of the carbohydrate rich organisms.

III TECHNICAL DIRECTIONS FOR THE PERFORMANCE OF METHODS THAT STAIN HISTOPLASMA AND OTHER YEAST LIKE FUNGI IN TISSUES

A General Recommendations

In the staining and study of sections suspected to contain Histoplasma control sections from a case of known histoplasmosis will often prove valuable. This allows detection of staining failure should such occur due to deterioration of one or more reagents; it provides the less experienced a reference point for the morphology and staining properties of Histoplasma. Because Histoplasma are harder to detect than most other fungi, it is not extravagant to employ more than one method whenever suspicion of histoplasmosis exists. Because Histoplasma are sometimes sparse—especially in older or largely healed lesions—it is helpful to stain sections cut at multiple levels. Duplicate or matching H & E's made for some of the additional levels cut allows better correlation in study of the special stains.

II The Chromic Acid Methenamine Silver Reaction (Grocott's Application of Gomori's Reaction for Polysaccharides)

In 1916 Gomori introduced a new alkaline silver nitrate reagent that provided selective blackening of some but not all polysaccharides after oxidation with chromic acid (9). He believed that aldehydes generated by chromic acid reduced the silver nitrate to metallic silver. Why this did not occur at all tissue sites known to color Schiff's reagent after periodic acid was not clear. Despite the general assumption that Gomori's methenamine silver reaction is due to aldehydes, the basis of the reaction is not established adequately (23). The same results are not obtained with methenamine silver after periodic acid and some non-carbohydrates may become blackened. Despite these problems, Grocott in 1955 reported that various fungi were blackened by methenamine silver after chromic acid while the background remained virtually unstained (13). This is a great advantage in photomicrography. Grocott's directions differ from Gomori's only in minor details. Because alkaline silver reagents are notoriously capricious, the worker utilizing them must follow all directions carefully and prepare solutions accurately. The

directions that follow adhere closely to those published by Crocott. We have found them satisfactory in a number of cases studied by us. Specific problems and certain variables of technic are stated at the appropriate steps in the procedure.

Reagents for the Chromic Acid Methenamine Silver Reaction

(While these can be re-used several times, longer limits of safe use have not been determined for each. The terms in parentheses are synonyms for the compounds required.)

- a) 5% chromic acid (chromic trioxide CrO_3) Dissolve 5.0 gm chromic acid in 100 ml of distilled water.
- b) *Methenamine Silver Stock Solution* Add 5 ml 5% silver nitrate (AgNO_3) to 100 ml 3% methenamine U.S.P. (hexamethylene tetramine $(\text{CH}_2)_6\text{N}_4$). Shake until the white precipitate initially formed becomes dissolved. If stored in the refrigerator (5°C) the stock solution remains clear, colorless, and effective for months.
- c) 5% borax (sodium tetraborate $\text{Na}_2\text{B}_4\text{O}_7 \cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$) Dissolve 5.0 gm borax in 100 ml distilled water.
- d) 1% sodium bisulfite (sodium acid sulfite NaHSO_3) This can be made fresh each time by dilution from a more concentrated stock solution, e.g., ten fold dilution of 10% sodium bisulfite made by dissolving 10.0 gm sodium bisulfite in 100 ml distilled water. Stopper tightly.
- e) 0.1% gold chloride ($\text{AuCl}_3 \cdot \text{HCl} \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$) Prepare from crystalline substance by dissolving 0.1 gm gold chloride in 100 ml distilled water, or dilute commercial 1% solution of gold chloride ten fold. This reagent is expensive but is stable and can be used repeatedly.
- f) 2% sodium thiosulfate (hypo $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$) Dissolve 2.0 gm of hypo in 100 ml distilled water.

Staining Procedure

- 1a Take sections through xylenes and alcohols to water. (Remove mercury precipitates with iodine and hypo when necessary. According to Lillie, formalin pigment will be bleached during the subsequent exposure to chromic acid (21). We have found that some may persist but can be minimized or removed by pre-

liminary treatment in saturated picric acid in 95% alcohol for 15 minutes if alcohol picric is used rinse in 70% alcohol and then in running tap water)

- 1b Smears should be fixed for 5-30 minutes in 95% alcohol or alcohol formalin rinsed in 70% alcohol and then in water (This also applies to the staining of smears by the other methods to be presented)

- 2 Rinse in distilled water and oxidize in 5% chromic acid for one hour (Should detachment of sections occur collodionization of duplicate sections prior to chromic acid may prove helpful)

- 3 Wash in running tap water 10 minutes and then rinse 1 minute in 1% sodium bisulfite Wash in water for 5 minutes Rinse briefly in three changes of distilled water (This thorough washing was intended by Gomori to insure the complete removal of chromic acid)

- 4 Treat for 60-90 minutes in the *working solution* of methenamine silver at 45-50°C (The working solution is prepared just before use by mixing 25 ml of methenamine silver stock solution with an equal volume of distilled water and 1 ml of 5% borax Crocott said 1-2 ml borax) Reheat the working solution to the desired oven or water bath temperature prior to the introduction As the time required for optimal staining varies no fixed duration was prescribed by Gomori He directed that sections be examined at intervals until brown staining by silver seemed adequate Two alternatives seem more expedient Include a *control* section containing *Histoplasma* after 60 minutes in methenamine silver rinse the *control* in distilled water and examine If *Histoplasma* are deep brown assume that staining of unknown sections is adequate and proceed to the next step If inadequate in the *control* continue staining for an additional 30 minutes Longer staining has not been necessary But the routine use of methenamine silver for 90 minutes results often in excessive staining The other alternative is to stain two sets of unknowns one for 60 and the other for 90 minutes Discard working solution after each use At the Armed Forces Institute of Pathology (30) the working solution is used at 58°C this produces faster staining but seems less selective and harder to control)

- 5 Rinse in three two minute changes of distilled water
- 6 Tone in 0.1% gold chloride for 2 minutes (This tends to bleach the background)
- 7 After rinsing in distilled water treat in 2% hypo for 2 minutes. Then wash thoroughly in tap water
- 8 Counterstain if desired e.g. hematoxylin and eosin or 0.1% safranin in 0.1% acetic acid for 5 minutes or 0.05% Light Green S.F. containing one drop of glacial acetic/100 ml or a brief dip in saturated aqueous picric acid
- 9 Dehydrate clear and mount in Permount or other synthetic resin (If safranin—a useful counterstain—is extracted excessively by alcohols dehydrate instead in 3 or 4 changes of acetone and go directly to xylenes)

Result Histoplasma are seen as gray to black ovals and spherules with sharp deeply blackened outlines against a background that is colorless except when counterstains are used (see Fig 5)

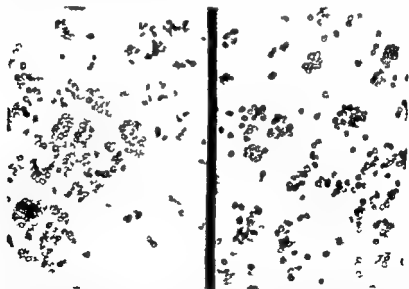


Fig 5 The chromic acid methenamine silver stain applied to the liver (A) and to the caseous adrenal mass (B) described in previous figures (500x). The cell walls of Histoplasma are sharply outlined and appear black to gray in the photograph. Glycogen granules in liver cells (A) are solidly stained and black. As the background is completely unstained contrast of organisms against tissues is excellent.

Collagen is usually deep reddish brown and reticulum is often blackened. While certain polysaccharides such as glycogen and epithelial mucins are also blackened these should cause no difficulties in interpretation. Naturally-occurring pigments e.g. anthracite and hemosiderin and particles of dust prove troublesome and must not be mistaken for organisms. For the best definition of Histoplasma avoid overstaining lest the organisms become solidly blackened. Organisms are more distinctive when the smears are blackened but the cytoplasm is less deeply stained. When present nuclei of fungi are often stained. The duration and temperature of the methenamine silver treatment is the most critical step and determines the depth and extent of tissue blackening. In older lesions counterstains are useful if the organisms are stained deeply enough to provide good contrast. In more active lesions nuclear debris and other basophilic matter can cause confusion when hematoxylin is used e.g. H & T stain.

Regrettably erythrocytes are inconstantly colored pink to reddish brown after the chromic acid methenamine silver sequence. Attempts to prevent this by changes in various steps of the method have not succeeded. Compared with Histoplasma red blood cells when stained appear reddish less deeply stained and more homogeneous—lacking distinct cell walls.

After chromic acid methenamine silver staining the organisms show birefringence around the periphery of dense non-luminous centers giving rise to a Maltese-cross appearance (43-44). Excessive blackening of Histoplasma may obscure such birefringence. The decisiveness and utility of this phenomenon will vary with the equipment and expertness of the microscopist. We observe such birefringence consistently but obtain only faint brightness or contrast with the inexpensive polarizer and analyzer attachments available for conventional microscopes. A polarizing microscope may produce more decisive contrast and increase the utility of this phenomenon.

Comment. This method seems laborious but produces spectacular results in most cases. Additional work is needed to establish the most consistently useful counterstains. At present safranin seems preferable to the H & T stain. It is doubtful that a fixed routine

will prove optimal for all instances. Organisms were poorly stained in several cases of Zenker fixed tissues studied by us but results in formalin fixed tissues have been consistently good. Specificity of the present method for polysaccharides remains to be proven. It is hoped that the method can be simplified and elucidated further.

C The Chromic Acid Schiff Reaction (the Bauer Stain and Its Modification by Gridley)

While this reaction is less sensitive than the periodic acid Schiff for polysaccharides in general it is very useful for the detection of Histoplasma and other fungi. It is similar to Gomori's reaction except that Schiff's reagent is used instead of methenamine silver. Why the silver reagent produces stronger staining of Histoplasma than Schiff's reagent after chromic is not clear. Contrast obtained between Histoplasma and the tissue background by Schiff's reagent is reasonably good when organisms are stained deeply enough.

This reaction is not specific for fungi but is relatively specific for polysaccharides. Chromic acid followed by Schiff's reagent was introduced by Bauer (1933) for the staining of glycogen and later found valuable for epithelial mucins. Illies' discovery (1917) that Bauer's reaction was useful for detecting fungi including Histoplasma (20) was temporarily overshadowed by the general adoption of periodic acid as the oxidant of choice for polysaccharides.

Like periodic acid and certain other oxidants chromic acid oxidizes *vicinal hydroxyl groups* i.e. pairs of OH groups on adjacent carbon atoms to aldehydes. Most but not all polysaccharides are stainable with Schiff's after such oxidation. Chromic acid produces weaker coloration of most substances in the final result than the PAS. This has been attributed to a coarser action of chromic acid viz. the degradation of some aldehydes to non-stainable derivatives e.g. carboxyls and carbon dioxide (22). But as fewer tissue structures and substances are stained by the Bauer contrast between tissue background and fungal or other polysaccharides often seems greater than obtained with the conventional PAS.

Gridley employed the Bauer stain in combination with Gomori's aldehyde fuchsin found useful for coloring hyphae of

some fungi not well stained by the Bauer alone (12). She also used a metanil yellow counterstain which promotes additional contrast between fungi and tissue. This is useful and can be added with profit to the PAS. Histoplasma are often more deeply colored in Gridley's variant. The reason is not clear as aldehyde fuchsin itself does not color Histoplasma. Possibly paraldehyde present in aldehyde fuchsin produces further darkening of bound Schiff's reagent. Exposure of sections to formaldehyde after the PAS also deepens the color of some substances (28). The technical procedures are relatively simple and require less time than the laborious chromic acid methenamine silver method. Even though fungi are stained less intensely some workers will prefer the convenience of Schiff's over the silver reagent. Where resources permit it will prove useful to treat two sets of sections in chromic acid while one set is taken through Schiff's reagent as directed below; the other set can be stained with methenamine silver etc. with step 3) of the directions given in B for the chromic acid methenamine silver method.

Reagents for the Chromic Acid Schiff Reaction (and the Gridley Variant)

- a) 4% Chromic Acid Solution. Dissolve 4.0 gm of chromic acid (CrO_3) in 100 ml distilled water. This reagent can be used repeatedly but eventually becomes exhausted. Control slides containing glycogen or epithelial mucus should be tested from time to time. (For the Bauer stain Illie (24) uses 5% chromic acid the same strength used for Gomori's methenamine silver reaction. This difference in chromic acid concentration probably makes no consistent difference in the final result.)
- b) Schiff's Reagent. Various formulas for Schiff's reagent differ chiefly in the amount of basic fuchsin prescribed and the particular substances generating the sulfurous acid that decolorizes the dye. Any Schiff's reagent already giving good results in the laboratory with the IAS can be used probably and might be tried before preparing the particular reagent in use by us (R W M). Combine in order

distilled water	—	10 ml
conc hydrochloric acid (HCl)	—	8 ml
sodium bisulfite (Na_2SO_3)	—	0 gm
basic fuchsin (CI 677)	—	20 gm

If not available 3.8 gm sodium metabisulfite ($\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_5$) can be substituted

Insert stopper and shake at 20-30 minute intervals until clear brown to brownish red. Add 1 gm active decolorizing carbon e.g. Norit and shake for 2 minutes. Filter through a fine grade of filter paper. Filtrate should be clear and colorless. While storage in the cold (5°C) is preferable this reagent can be kept at room temperature. If large quantities are prepared at one time the reagent keeps better in several smaller well filled bottles instead of a single large container or only partly filled bottles. Discard if reagent becomes pink. The reagent is fairly stable and can be used many times. Exact limits of safe usage must be individually determined by dating the solutions staining of control slides occasionally and some estimation of use frequency.

- c) *Bisulfite Rinses* A stock solution of molar sodium bisulfite (sodium acid sulfite NaHSO_3) is made by dissolving 10.4 gm in 100 ml distilled water. This is diluted twenty fold with water just before use. Discard the rinses after each use.
- d) *Gomori's Aldehyde fuchsin Stain (Gridley's Use)* Combine the following

basic fuchsin (C I 617)	—	10 gm
90% ethanol	—	200 ml
conc HCl	—	20 ml
paraaldehyde (U.S.P.)	—	20 ml

Dissolve the dye in alcohol and then add other ingredients. Let stand for 2-3 days before use. solution turns purple. Then store in the refrigerator. Filter and warm to room temperature before use. This reagent keeps a long while. Refilter as necessary.

- e) *Metanil Yellow Counterstain* Dissolve 0.25 gm metanil yellow (C I 138) in 100 ml distilled water acidified with 0.2 ml of glacial acetic acid (CH_3COOH). This can be reused a number of times. Replace if appreciable black precipitate develops.

Staining Procedure

- 1 Take sections through xylenes and alcohols to water. (Remove mercury deposits as necessary or remove formalin pigment if abundant)
- 2 Rinse briefly in distilled water and oxidize in 4% chromic acid for 60 minutes at room temperature
- 3 Wash in running tap water 10 minutes. all color due to chromic acid should be gone

- 4 Treat in Schiff's reagent for 10 minutes
 - 5 Rinse in three changes of M/20 sodium bisulfite two minutes each. Discard rinses after each use
 - 6 Wash 5-10 minutes in running tap water. Dip in distilled water
 - 7 Stain in aldehyde fuchsin for 15-30 minutes
 - 8 Rinse off excess stain in 95% alcohol and then wash 3-5 minutes in tap water
 - 9 Counterstain in metanil yellow solution for 60 seconds (While specified by Gridley and found useful by us this can be deleted if wished)
 - 10 Rinse briefly in tap water, dehydrate, clear and mount
- (Note: For the original Bruer method omit steps 7-9 and if nuclear staining is desired use Harris hematoxylin counterstain for two minutes followed by the usual rinsing in acid alcohol and water.)

Result The cell walls or shells of *Histoplasma* and other yeasts are colored red by Schiff's reagent (See Fig. 6). Nuclear material of fungi unlike those of tissue cells is often Schiff positive when present. But nuclear staining of *Histoplasma* is inconstant. Glycogen and epithelial mucins are strongly Schiff positive after chromic but usually easily distinguishable. The tissue background is only pale pink unless colored yellow by the recommended metanil yellow counterstain which also colors red blood cells. Pseudohyphae of *Candida* are well stained by Schiff's reagent after chromic acid but the hyphae of certain other fungi are not.

The addition of aldehyde fuchsin i.e. the Gridley combination does not alter the preceding except that *Histoplasma* are more purplish. Also the hyphae of certain other fungi and the acidic polysaccharide capsules of *Cryptococci* are said to be lavender to deep purple. The staining of most epithelial mucins but not glycogen is deepened to purplish blue possibly owing to additional coloration of acidic groups by aldehyde fuchsin or to action of paraldehyde on bound Schiff's reagent. For other specific details consult Gridley's original paper (12). One drawback to the Gridley combination is the lack of nuclear staining in tissue cells.

Comment Although *Histoplasma* are more deeply colored after the complete Gridley stain than when aldehyde fuchsin is



Fig 6 The Gridley stain applied to sections of the liver (A) and the caseous adrenal mass (B) described in previous figures (both 550x). The cell walls of Histoplasma appear as sharply outlined dark gray spherules in the photograph. Glycogen granules in (A) are more solidly colored red and appear black. While the background is colored slightly, contrast is reasonably good.

omitted the staining of *Histoplasma* by aldehyde fuchsin is doubted. Aldehyde fuchsin used after chromic acid treatment in Schiff's reagent has failed to color *Histoplasma*. Whether aldehyde fuchsin may be used or not the metanil yellow counterstain is advised.

II The Periodic Acid Schiff (PAS) Reaction

McManus (1946) (27) and Illie (1947) (21) independently devised methods similar in essence that utilized periodic acid oxidation followed by Schiff's reagent. The PAS proved more sensitive and dependable than older methods for the staining of diverse polysaccharides and other carbohydrates in tissue sections. The work of Hotchkiss (14) clarified the chemical basis of the reaction discussed previously. The histologic and histochemical value of the PAS was recognized early and its use soon became virtually routine wherever tissues were examined with the microscope. Following a series of reports asserting its superiority over the Bauer stain for the detection of fungi, the PAS became widely used for this purpose (17-19).

While periodic acid is the oxidant of choice for most naturally occurring carbohydrates of tissues, the assumed superiority of the PAS for staining fungi requires qualification. As an all purpose method, most fungi are colored very well by the PAS reaction. But it is usually easier to detect *Histoplasma* after chromic acid Schiff staining than after the customary PAS technic. This is not true of tissue carbohydrates in general. Even more important is the difference in contrast between *Histoplasma* and the tissue background shown by the PAS versus the Bauer or Cridley stains. Contrast between *Histoplasma* and tissue is greater after the chromic acid because the background is usually not colored to any extent by Schiff's reagent. Gain in contrast and easier detection of organisms can result either by intensification of fungus staining relative to the tissue background or from the suppression of background staining while organisms remain adequately colored.

There are two ways to obtain stronger staining of *Histoplasma* (and other fungi) by Schiff's reagent following periodic acid oxidation (36). Because these observations are new, the interested reader is urged to confirm them by testing sections from one or

more known cases of histoplasmosis before adopting our recommendations. That stronger staining could result from more intense oxidation of Histoplasma was observed earlier but evidently overlooked by others (18). In McManus and Lillie's methods sections are treated in aqueous periodic for 5-10 minutes. Considerably stronger staining of Histoplasma results if the treatment in aqueous periodic is prolonged to 1 hour. Alternatively much enhanced staining of Histoplasma by Schiff's reagent can also be obtained if sections are oxidized for 5-10 minutes in 0.5% periodic acid dissolved in glacial acetic acid instead of water. Other steps in the PAS sequence require no change. The tissue background remains moderately to strongly PAS positive but the use of the metanil yellow step of Gridley's procedure described in (C) improves contrast to some extent. The proposed changes in periodic acid oxidation apply only to its use in the detection of fungi especially Histoplasma and is not intended for general histological and histochemical usage. With few exceptions the numerous other uses of the PAS reaction are served just as well by the traditional brief oxidation in aqueous periodic.

Reagents for the Periodic Acid Schiff Reaction (Including Acetic Periodic Schiff Variant)

- a) **0.5% Periodic Acid (Aqueous)** Dissolve 0.5 gm periodic acid (H_5IO_6) per 100 ml of distilled water. Stored solutions keep indefinitely but the working reagent becomes exhausted at a rate that depends on the extent of usage. Determine safe limits of usage for the working reagent by occasional checks with control sections that yield good results when all PAS reagents are fresh.
- b) **0.5% Periodic Acid in Glacial Acetic (Acetic Periodic)** Dissolve 0.5 gm periodic acid per 100 ml of glacial acetic acid. Periodic acid in acetic is fairly stable and may be used many times. The slight amount of white precipitate that forms on standing can be removed by filtering as necessary without evident loss of oxidizing capacity. A jar of reagent in use will become exhausted slowly and should be checked at intervals.
- c) **Schiff's Reagent and Bisulfite Rinses** See directions already given in the section dealing with the chromic acid Schiff reaction (C).

- d) *Metanil Yellow Counterstain* See directions for chromic acid Schiff reaction (C)

Staining Procedure

- 1 Pass sections through xylenes and alcohols to water (Eliminate mercury deposits if Zenker or Helly fixed See directions in (B) for removal of formalin pigment when necessary)
- 2 Select one of the following conditions of oxidation
 - a) *traditional* oxidize in aqueous periodic for 10 minutes
 - b) *prolonged oxidation* oxidize 60 minutes in aqueous periodic
 - c) *acetic periodic* rinse briefly in glacial acetic and oxidize for 10 minutes in periodic acid dissolved in glacial acetic acid (Prior rinsing in acetic prevents watery dilution of acetic periodic)
- 3 Wash 5 minutes in running tap water rinse briefly in distilled water
- 4 Treat in Schiff's reagent for 10 minutes
- 5 Rinse in three changes of M/20 sodium bisulfite 2 minutes each (The special rinses remove excess Schiff's reagent without inducing its spontaneous coloration and should not be omitted) Discard rinses after each use
- 6 Wash 5-10 minutes in running tap water (Full coloration of stained sites requires adequate washing)
- 7 *Optional* for the staining of nuclei place in Harris hematoxylin for 30 seconds to 2 minutes (Determine optimal time by experience for your preparation) Dip in water and then briefly in 1% HCl in 70% alcohol until hematoxylin turns reddish Wash 10 minutes in running tap water (Any other contrasting stain that is suitably selective for nuclei can be substituted)
- 8 *Optional (but recommended) metanil yellow counterstain* dip in metanil yellow for 60 seconds Wash briefly in tap water
- 9 Dehydrate clear and mount

Result Tissue structures and substances that react with the PAS are colored magenta. The strongest reactions or depth of color occur in the cell walls of fungi, glycogens, epithelial mucins, renal basement membranes and brush borders, and other sites believed to contain carbohydrate or glycoprotein. (As lipids may interfere in frozen sections of fresh tissue or in smears that have not been defatted, specificity of the PAS for carbohydrates applies more strict

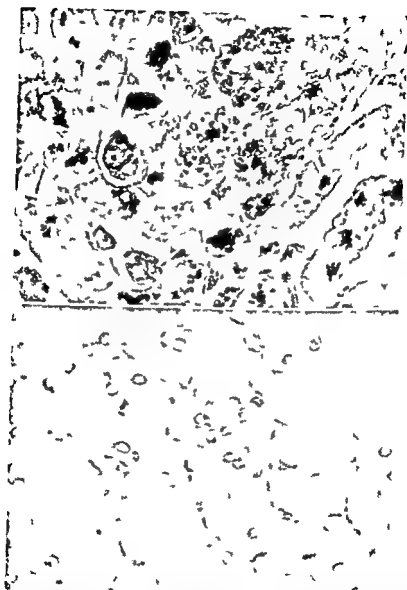


Fig 7 *Periodic acid-Schiff reaction* applied to sections of liver (A 500x) and the caseous adrenal mass (B 1050x) described in previous figures. In A oxidized for ten minutes in 0.5% periodic acid organisms are stained fairly strongly and glycogen granules appear black. But contrast of organisms against tissues is poor owing to background staining. In B oxidized in periodic acid for five minutes organisms are barely detectable even at high magnification.

ly to its use on paraffin sections.) Collagen and reticulum are moderately PAS positive and occasionally strongly colored. Nuclei of tissue cells and their cytoplasm when devoid of PAS positive granules should be uncolored except by counterstains when used. Red blood cells are colorless unless stained by metanil yellow. Some bacteria e.g. pneumococci are PAS positive and must not be mistaken for the Histoplasma which are larger.

The cell walls or shells of Histoplasma will be colored after any one of the oxidation schedules given but their intensity or depth of color is only slight to moderate after the *traditional (brief) oxidation in aqueous periodic* (See Fig 7). Crinules of glycogen, other PAS positive cell granules, and some pigments tend to be finer in size and colored solidly contrasted to Histoplasma which show strongly colored shells with paler cytoplasm. Russell bodies are solidly colored and associated with plasma cells. The staining of Histoplasma nuclei is fairly constant in active lesions believed to contain live organisms. Nuclear staining of Histoplasma in old lesions is inconstant and often lacking. The *prolonged oxidation (aqueous)* or *oxidation in acetic periodic* produces decisively stronger staining of cell walls of Histoplasma but fails to cause any stronger staining of their nuclei (36) (See Fig 8). Usually pathogenic yeasts other than Histoplasma are colored adequately after the traditional oxidation but contrast of organisms against tissue is more pronounced after the acetic PAS. As the caseous necrotic background of old or fresh lesions is usually moderately to strongly PAS positive organisms may not be readily visible except at higher magnifications (high-dry) of the microscope. The metanil yellow counterstain helps to alter the background color to orange red and improves contrast to some extent. Sections should not be thicker than 8 microns or dense staining may obscure organisms.

A nuclear stain e.g. hematoxylin is generally useful especially in the study of older lesions. But in some active lesions the presence of abundant deeply staining nuclear debris may hinder the detection of Histoplasma unless the latter are also abundant and deeply stained. Do not persist in the use of a hematoxylin routine that causes cytoplasmic basophilia after the PAS. Excessive or poorly selective hematoxylin can spoil an otherwise satisfactory PAS stain.

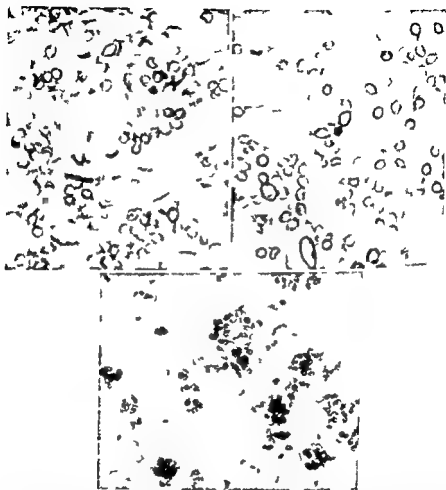


Fig 8 Effects of changes in the use of periodic acid on the staining of *Histoplasma* by Schiff's reagent. A and B (each 100x) are duplicate sections of the caseous adrenal mass shown previously. The section shown in A was oxidized for sixty minutes in 0.5% periodic acid while that in B was treated in 0.5% periodic in glacial acetic acid for just five minutes. Section C (50x) of liver shown previously was oxidized for ten minutes in 0.5% periodic acid in glacial acetic acid. Organisms are more deeply stained by Schiff's reagent than after oxidation in aqueous periodic acid for five to ten minutes. Compare with Figure 7 and other figures.

Comment The chief obstacle to the detection of *Histoplasma* by the PAS reaction is the fairly strong coloration produced by other tissue components especially in the viscous necrotic material or in the collagenous partly calcific content of older lesions. Background staining by Schiff's reagent is much reduced without impairment of *Histoplasma* coloration if sections are placed in 5% chromic acid for thirty minutes (and washed) following initial oxidation by prolonged periodic or by acetic periodic acid (35). Compared with *Histoplasma* calcific particles tend to be less uniform in size and moderately stained in toto without sharply defined shells. Stained objects other than fungi cause less trouble in the study of more active lesions or viscera involved during disseminated histoplasmosis.

IV CYTOLOGIC AND CYTOCHEMICAL FEATURES OF OTHER YEAST LIKE MICROBIAL AGENTS

Because *Histoplasma* are small and rather non-descript even when nuclei are present presumptive histologic diagnosis requires the exclusion of other yeast like agents in the differential diagnosis. Many of these agents can be identified more reliably than *Histoplasma*. The fungi of the group are usually well stained by oxidative reactions for polysaccharides. Criteria found useful for recognition of these agents will be reviewed briefly. Of course confirmation by microbiological methods should be attempted whenever possible.

A *Blastomyces dermatitidis*

This agent provokes a partly suppurative and partly granulomatous inflammatory reaction (1). The organisms occur in tissues as thick walled budding yeasts that normally range from 5-30 microns in size but most forms are 7-20 microns. The organisms possess relatively large round nuclei stainable with either basic dyes or by oxidative reactions. The cell wall is described as doubly contoured after routine stains but is usually solidly colored by oxidative reactions. Buds are usually single and have a wide stalk. While a thin rim of acidic material (37) usually less well colored by oxidative reactions is occasionally seen external to the cell wall

Blastomycetes possess no mucinous capsules like those of *Cryptococci*. There is usually a space often lunar shaped between the cell wall and the nuclear material (1). Some microforms (2-4 microns) are not uncommon and may predominate in exceptional cases (31). These will be difficult to distinguish from *Histoplasma* except that pathologic features of the two diseases differ as a rule. Compared with *Histoplasma* cell walls of such small Blastomycetes are usually thinner and nuclei larger and more constant. Both may show similar birefringence after methenamine silver (35).

B *Blastomyces brasiliensis*

The general features are similar to *B. dermatitidis* except that multiple buds arising from filamentous stalks occur. Microforms also occur (31).

C *Cryptococcus neoformans*

There may be virtually no inflammatory reaction ranging to chronic inflammation that is granulomatous to varying degrees (25). The organisms occur as thin walled budding yeasts possessing as a rule mucinous capsules rich in acidic polysaccharide (37). They range in size from 2-20 microns but most will be 5-15 microns. The capsules are usually thick especially when mounted in glycerin jelly (33) after the Alcian blue (32) or our colloidal iron stain (34). Mucicarmine is much used for capsule staining (1, 25, 41) but is less sensitive than the newer methods mentioned. But some strains have less thick capsules and the smallest forms commonly lack them. While small inclusions are sometimes present the organisms lack the large nuclei regularly seen in Blastomycetes. The intensity of staining by oxidative methods of polysaccharides depends on the extent to which the capsules are present and stained. Buds usually have slender stalks. Germinal tubes consisting of 3-4 consecutive and undetached buds are sometimes mistaken for hyphae. Confusion with *Histoplasma* should occur but rarely if care is taken to reveal capsules in *Cryptococci*.

D *Coccidioides immitis*

The usual tissue response varies. In active lesions it is partly suppurative with a tendency to granulomatous reaction that becomes dominant in older lesions often with caseation and tubercles

(11) Depending on the site and duration of the disease various forms of the organism may occur in tissues. The key diagnostic feature is the presence of the reproductive form viz the endosporulating spherule which may range from 15-75 microns in size and larger. These contain a varying number of young forms called endospores (2-5 microns in diameter). Rupture of spherules releases free spores that gradually enlarge and eventually form reproductive spherules. Free spores vary in size up to 50 microns or so and closely resemble Blastomycetes except that budding is lacking with rare exceptions (5). Also the internal material of spores tends to fill the cells or coat the inner surface of the cell wall thereby differing from Blastomycetes (1) the internal material of such spores is basophilic, stainable by oxidative reactions and partly removable by distase. The cell walls are thick and deeply stained by such oxidative reactions. In cavity lesions of the lung hyphae with arthrospores are frequent often with scarcity of spherules (12). Hyphae have not been seen elsewhere. Only the endospores and young free spores are likely to cause confusion with Histoplasma. Presence of endosporulating spherules resolves this problem.

E. Candida (Monilia various species)

Detection of these organisms is very frequent. While saprophytic growth is the usual explanation primary infection with chronic or even granulomatous inflammation may occur. Organisms occur in tissues as oval thick walled budding yeasts ranging from 1-6 microns in size but usually 2-4 microns. These are usually associated with a variable number of pseudohyphae that are septate and sometimes branching. Rounded spores similar to the free yeasts may occur at points of constriction in the pseudohyphae. The yeasts and pseudohyphae are dependably Gram positive and stained more deeply than Histoplasma by oxidative reactions. The yeasts seem to be stained solidly their thick cell walls obscuring nuclear detail. Distinction from Histoplasma also depends on histological assessment of the lesion and on the presence of pseudohyphae. hyphae are rare in histoplasmosis.

F. Sporotrichum schenckii

As histological detection of this organism is still regarded as a rarity confusion with Histoplasma seems unlikely. The histologic

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D *Coccidioides immitis*

The usual tissue response varies. In active lesions it is partly suppurative with a tendency to granulomatous reaction that becomes dominant in older lesions often with caseation and tubercles.

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reaction is usually pyogenic and necrotizing with a variable granulomatous component (4). The typical clinical infection usually leads to suspicion and isolation of the agent by other means. But use of the more sensitive oxidative reactions now favored for Histoplasma should reveal Sporotrichum more frequently. Also the moderate coloration seen in the walls of Sporotrichum in mice after stains for acidic polysaccharides (25-37) can be combined with oxidative Schiff's staining with intensification of their net coloration (35). In mice the fungi are 3-5 microns and cigar shaped.

G Other Microbial Agents

Phagocytosed cocci with thick capsules may sometimes be mistaken in H & I stained sections for Histoplasma (35-37). Gram type stains the nature of the lesion and the smaller size of cocci should prevent this.

Toxoplasma occur in tissues in two forms viz. the *proliferative* organisms typically plentiful in active cases seen in newborn infants and in *pseudocysts* that are larger and typical of more chronic infections (7-8). The former are crescentic usually with one rounded end and measure about 3 x 5 microns in smears but smaller in sections. The proliferative organisms possess basophilic nuclei and a few glycogen granules. Diagnosis from these forms alone is difficult except by assessment of the clinicopathologic features present. Pseudocysts are more distinctive and allow easier diagnosis. These range from 30-100 microns in diameter and usually contain young forms each with a prominent glycogen granule about the size of the nucleus. The cyst wall is stained by oxidative reactions and is argyrophilic. Tissue cells filled with proliferative organisms may be confoundable with pseudocysts but lack the distinct walls of the latter.

Pneumocystis carinii is regarded as the cause of a distinctive plasma-cell pneumonia seen largely in infants. These are yeast-like organisms (2-4 microns) seen better in smears than in tissue sections. The bodies are not revealed decisively except by the Gridley stain or by methenamine silver after chromic acid. Whether confoundable with Histoplasma or not remains to be seen.

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pearance of exudate. When the inflammation remained acute without a quiescent period a severe nodular iritis occurred in one to two weeks. Within two to four weeks more the severe inflammation had begun to disappear and became quiescent in two to three months. Nodular scars remained after the inflammation had subsided. Heat killed spores would not produce an iritis.

Microscopic sections of the eyes during the first week after infection showed a few intact spores and mycelial elements. The amount of exudate varied with the size of the infecting dose. The exudate was comprised of many polymorphonuclear and mononuclear leukocytes and few macrophages containing yeast organisms. Rare giant cells and occasional epithelioid cells were also present. As the nodules appeared the microscopic lesions became granulomatous characterized primarily by round cell infiltrates and epithelioid cells. Yeast cells were prominent within macrophages and some of the many giant cells. A few intact spores could even be seen as long as 21½ weeks after infection. Abscesses with tissue necrosis were present four to six weeks after infection. By two to three months there was gradual subsidence of the inflammatory process. Yeast cells could then rarely be seen in phagocytes although the organism was culturally proved to be present in the eye of one rabbit six months after infection. Giant cells were absent and only a few epithelioid cells persisted. The infiltrates were composed extensively of the round cell type. The course of the uveitis was apparently self limiting.

The early tissue reaction and healing of lesions in guinea pigs and gerbils produced by the localized subcutaneous inoculation of pure yeast forms, pure mycelial elements, spores and mixed cultures of *Histoplasma capsulatum* were even better defined microscopically by Brandt (2). During the first 24 hours following the subcutaneous injection of pure yeast forms into the abdominal and vaginal wall of guinea pigs yeast organisms remained extracellular. A large number of leukocytes but very few histiocytes made their appearance. By 48 hours the leukocytes were fewer and macrophages which had increased in number had engulfed many of the histoplasma yeast cells. By the sixth to tenth day a central area of acute inflammation had developed. Many pus

THE PATHOGENESIS OF HISTOPLASMOSIS IN ANIMALS

JOHN J. PROCKNOW

The natural route of infection with the fungal organism *Histoplasma capsulatum* is quite generally considered to be the respiratory tract. Animals like man are assumed to acquire a primary pulmonary infection by inhalation of air borne macroconidia produced by the fungal saprophyte growing freely in the soil. After lodging in the lung parenchyma the inhaled histoplasma spore would be expected to convert to the parasitic yeast like form. Dissemination of the histoplasma yeast via the bloodstream and subsequent parasitization of organs and tissues rich in reticulo endothelial cells such as the liver spleen lymph nodes bone marrow and adrenals would be expected to follow. The many studies of naturally occurring and laboratory induced infections in different species of animals must be integrated to satisfactorily postulate the pathogenicity of histoplasmosis.

The immediate response of the host to the presence of the infecting fungal agent in either the mycelial or yeast form has been demonstrated locally in various extrapulmonary tissues of animals. Although these tissues are unnatural sites of entry for *Histoplasma capsulatum* the response to the infecting organism parallels and substantiates studies of pathogenesis in the lungs of experimental animals.

Day (1) induced a localized infection in the anterior chamber of the eye of the rabbit and was first to show the early development and healing of the granuloma of histoplasmosis. A destructive nodular anterior uveitis resulted from the injection of a saline suspension of viable histoplasma spores into the anterior chamber of normal rabbits. Grossly dilatation of vessels and exudation appeared in the iris within 24 hours. The immediate inflammation subsided in some rabbits within a week. Nodules appeared in two to four weeks and subsequently became larger with the reap

macrophages containing yeast forms located close to the area of necrosis

The pathogenesis of histoplasmosis has been best documented experimentally in the white mouse although the sequential pattern of the disease must be gleaned from many studies. De Monbreun (4) and other workers (5-8) demonstrated the susceptibility of the laboratory mouse to infection with the mycelial and yeast forms of *Histoplasma capsulatum*. The reliability of the mouse as a tool for the isolation of the fungus from tissues (9-11) or from soil (12-14) substantiated its predictable infectivity. Susceptibility to infection with variable strains and infective doses of yeast phase *Histoplasma capsulatum* by the intracerebral (15-19), intravenous (6, 18, 20), intraperitoneal (18, 19, 21-24) and intranasal (19) routes has been demonstrated in the white mouse. The mycelial phase as an inoculum has also been highly successful intraperitoneally (17, 22, 25-28), intravenously (6, 8, 29) and intranasally (27, 28, 30) in producing a recognizable infection in mice proved culturally and pathologically. Following infection a generalized histoplasmosis quite uniformly develops frequently resulting in death but also tolerated as a chronic infection. The disseminated histoplasmosis produced in mice directly exposed to naturally contaminated soil by inhalation of the dust aerosol shown by Hinton *et al.* (31) strongly emphasizes that the animal becomes infected in nature primarily via the respiratory route.

In our studies at the University of Chicago (30) the very early pathogenesis of experimental histoplasma infection of pulmonary tissue has been well delineated in the white mouse. The progressive pathologic cellular reaction to the histoplasma spore within the mouse lung has been observed from early implantation through its subsequent rupture and conversion to the yeast phase. The natural mode of infection was simulated by the intranasal inoculation of a saline suspension of viable mature tuberculate chlamydospores. It was culturally demonstrated that dissemination of the yeast organism from the lung to the spleen and liver had occurred within four days. By the end of two weeks heavy and widespread reticulo-endothelial involvement had developed. Microscopic examination of the lungs of the spore infected mice were

cells occasional histiocytes and lymphocytes comprised this area. Surrounding it were reticulo endothelial elements interspersed with a few polymorphonuclear leukocytes lymphocytes plasma cells and Langhans type giant cells. Fibrous tissue in turn surrounded this cellular accumulation. Yeast forms remained free within the acutely inflamed area while many others were contained within the reticulo endothelial and giant cells. Healing had begun by the twelfth day characterized by an increase in plasma cells the appearance of fibrocytes and decrease in reticulo-endothelial cells. Healing continued through the 31st day although the yeast cells were few to absent by the twenty first day.

When pure spore free mycelial elements were inoculated subcutaneously there was conversion to the yeast phase within one week. The cellular response was similar to that induced by pure yeast organisms. Fragmentation of the filaments and ingestion by reticulo-endothelial cells occurred before the typical phagocytized yeast forms were present at the end of a week.

Following the subcutaneous inoculation of a suspension of pure chlamydospores many spores were phagocytosed intact by the large abundant multinucleate giant cells during the first few days. Reticulo endothelial hyperplasia was evident. Other free spores became completely surrounded by a ring of polymorphonuclear leukocytes. After the first week most of the spores had begun to show loss of chromatin network as they underwent degeneration although the tubercles and spore wall of some remained intact for a longer time. In other spores there was an internal rearrangement clumping and division of nuclear material to form yeast cells. With the ultimate rupture of the thick spore wall the yeast organisms were released into the tissue where they were engulfed by macrophages. There was no systemic spread of the infection into other organs.

A more marked local subcutaneous reaction to mycelial organisms was shown in rabbits by Scheff (3). An inflammatory focus with central necrosis developed within 48 hours after inoculation. Microscopic examination of the excised lesion on the fifth day showed marked leukocytic and monocytic cellular infiltration. Tissue destruction was present in the necrotic area with a few

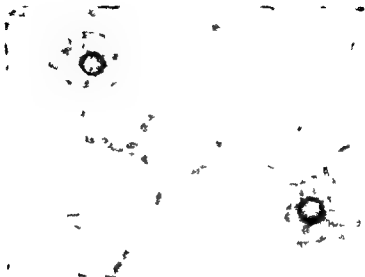


Fig 2 Increased localized inflammatory reaction to spores located within alveoli in lung of mouse 15 hours after infection ($\times 700$ —Hotchkiss McManus)

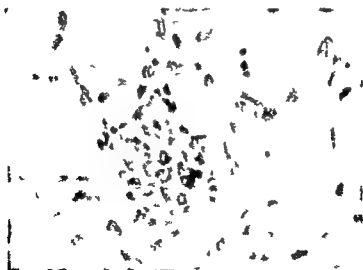


Fig 3 Yeast containing macrophages within and surrounding focal exudate in lung of mouse 36 hours after infection ($\times 1000$ —HEA)



Fig 1 Tuberculate chlamydospore with slight cellular response in lung of mouse three hours after infection (x700—Hotchkiss McManus)

made as often as three hour intervals following inoculation. The spores were usually small enough to pass deeply into the bronchioles or directly into many alveoli.

From three to six hours after inoculation spores were seen in the alveoli and bronchioles without any or only slight cellular reaction to the individual spores (Fig 1). At most only a few polymorphonuclear leukocytes ringed the spores in this early phase. The cellular infiltrates about the spores progressively increased in size thereafter. Polymorphonuclear leukocytes remained the prominent cell type. By 15 to 24 hours after inoculation the inflammatory reaction had become much more extensive though still highly localized. The spores remained remarkably preserved and characteristically distributed in alveoli or in terminal bronchioles (Fig 2).

By 36 hours after infection many spores still maintained a remarkable state of preservation. The polymorphonuclear leukocytes had begun to degenerate and to be replaced by epithelioid cells. The exudate had increased to fill neighboring alveoli and



Fig 5 Spore wall fragments being phagocytosed but still present in lung of mouse 7 days after infection (x1400—Hotchkiss-McManus.)

capsules were surrounded by polymorphonuclear leukocytes and engulfed by macrophages. Disintegration of the intact spores and release of the parasitic yeast continued until the seventh day by which time all spores had disappeared. Only minimal amounts of spore wall fragments remained to be phagocytosed (Fig 5).

By the end of one week, focal granulomatous infiltrates had clogged many alveoli adjacent to the bronchioles. Macrophages completely engorged with encapsulated histoplasma yeast cells had become numerous and were scattered throughout the exudate. However, in other densely cellular areas, round cells and epithelioid cells were much in evidence, while yeast-filled macrophages were extremely few. By ten days following inoculation, widespread pulmonary infection with *Histoplasma capsulatum* was present, characterized by diffuse foci of dense exudative response throughout the lung fields (Fig 6). Many mice had begun to expire of disseminated histoplasmosis at this stage of the infection, and lesions were present in other organs of the reticulo-endothelial system.

Grayston *et al* (27-28) also showed that discrete lung lesions

macrophages were present within the exudate. A few were parasitized by encapsulated histoplasma yeast cells. Particulate matter probably composed of hyphal or spore wall elements was found interspersed through some areas of exudate (Fig 3). No spores were found to be phagocytosed intact by macrophages.

At 48 hours an internal trabeculation of the histoplasma spore now almost entirely surrounded by epithelioid cells appeared. This internal segmentation was more clearly seen during the next 12 to 24 hours. The chitinous capsule of the spore remained intact and the tubercles were prominent about the periphery.

By the third to the fifth day following infection the walls of the spores were generally smooth and defects became apparent. With rupture the yeast like contents bulged through these defects and were exuded into the parenchyma to be ultimately phagocytosed by macrophages (Fig 4). Occasionally discrete globular masses of well encapsulated yeast cells surrounded by epithelioid cells could be seen in identical position in the exudate in which identifiable spores were observed earlier. Remnants of the spore

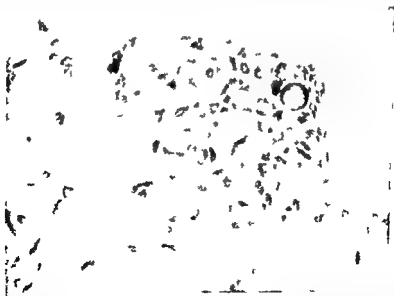


Fig 4 Histoplasma spore rupturing and protoplasmic content bulging through defect in lung of mouse 78 hours after infection. (x700—Hoichkiss McManus)

present. The initial presence of the yeast or spore and its fragments has attracted the larger number of polymorphonuclear cells. The macrophages appeared particularly when the yeast organisms were released into tissue. By comparison the typical progressive reactivity of the mouse lung to the presence of the yeast phase of *Histoplasma capsulatum* inoculated intranasally was demonstrated by Grayston and Salvin (19). Small infiltrates of lymphocytes and macrophages involving only a few alveoli appeared two days after infection. The infiltrates were again peribronchial in location but contained only a very few polymorphonuclear leukocytes. The lesions increased in size during the first week and remained composed of round cells with some macrophages containing the histoplasma organism. By fourteen days the lesions were quite localized. Subsequently there was healing by resolution. Epithelioid granulomas surprisingly did not develop in these experiments. By two to four months after infection infrequent resolving lesions persisted but the lungs continued to show increased lymphatic tissue particularly in the area of blood vessels. Round cell infiltrates appeared in the livers by the fourth day after infection. There was progressive maturation of the typical hepatic granulomas by fourteen days with subsequent healing and resolution. No other pathologic changes were found in other organs.

With the conversion of the spore to yeast organisms and phagocytosis already apparent in our study by the second day following infection the bloodstream should obviously next serve as the medium for the systemic spread of the parasite. Cultures of the spleen and liver showed increasing positivity and more heavily infected tissue by four days after intranasal infection attesting to an early secondary hematogenous spread. At the end of two weeks the blood was frequently positive for *Histoplasma capsulatum* by culture. The numbers of organisms in the lung tissue had steadily increased to a maximum by ten days following infection. Optimum seeding of organisms into the blood probably took place during this period of propagation. The exponential growth of the organism in tissues during the first and second weeks following infection with sublethal doses of yeast organisms intravenously has been further explored (20-25). After one week the number of organisms



Fig 6 Diffuse focal granulomas throughout the mouse lung 10 days after infection (Low power—HE)

of considerable size were definitely present by one week following intranasal inoculation of spores. These lesions were discrete and peribronchial in location and tended to coalesce in the hilar region. Progression of the lesion after the first week was slight. The lesions were composed of mononuclear infiltrates, rare polymorphonuclear elements and no edema. Yeast-like organisms were never abundant within these lesions and they disappeared rather rapidly. Atelectasis was noted about the larger confluent hilar infiltrates. By one month epithelioid cells had replaced the acute reaction. Some lymphocytes and macrophages remained. There was neither necrosis nor fibrosis. There was a tendency for the lesions to disappear eventually. Frequently infiltrates of round cells were present about the pulmonary vessels. Pulmonary lymphatic tissue hyperplasia was marked. Granulomatous organization, resolution and even disappearance of lesions occurred within two to four months.

The very early tissue response to the spore or yeast has varied in regard to the numbers of the polymorphonuclear leukocytes

introduction of yeast like organisms into the experimental animal by any route there is usually a prompt local response to the inoculum a generalized proliferation of the cells of the reticulo-endothelial system and engorgement of these cells with the yeast organism of *Histoplasma capsulatum*. Thus hyperplasia of the reticulo-endothelial system and infiltration with cells of the monocytic and macrophagic type both containing large numbers of the parasites have been noted in the lungs spleen liver lymph nodes bone marrow adrenals heart kidney brain pancreas testes gastrointestinal tract and subcutaneous and connective tissue of infected mice. When intravenous injection of the yeast or mycelial form was performed disseminated histoplasmosis resulted regularly. Animals autopsied when death occurred spontaneously or late in the course of the disease have provided the pathologic sections used in describing the typical disseminated granulomas (6 8 29 32).

Microscopic sections of the lungs showed hyperplastic and heavily parasitized cells filling the interalveolar septa and collapsing some of the alveolar spaces. Occasional parasitized cells were found free in alveoli. It is difficult to understand why Baum *et al* (29) found the lungs uninfected in their study.

Within the liver and spleen small infiltrates of round cells increased in size during the first two weeks. The proliferated Kupffer cells of the grossly enlarged liver were found heavily parasitized distending the sinusoids and compressing the cells of the liver cords to the point of necrosis in some areas. Generally the liver cords were preserved however. Some polymorphonuclear leukocytes surrounded areas of necrosis. Infiltrates were frequently noted in the vicinity of central veins. Multinucleated giant cells appeared by the end of one month. Phagocytes lymphocytes and a few plasma cells were interspersed in the connective tissue of the portal canals. Yeast cells were occasionally seen lying free within the tissue. By four to eight months liver parenchyma was usually replaced by coalescent granulomas and macrophages and giant cells containing an abundance of yeast cells. In the enlarged spleen the structure was distorted by marked hyperplasia of the phagocytic reticulo endothelial cells lining the sinusoids and containing many yeast organisms. Normal lymphoid follicles were often maintained. Caseation necrosis was present in severely invaded areas. Macro-

recoverable by culture from the tissues became stationary or decreased. After three to four months tissue counts were 100 to 1 000 fold less than during the first and second weeks following infection. The growth pattern of the histoplasma organism was similar in the spleen and liver during the course of infection. There was some delay in the presence of organisms in lung tissue indicating secondary infection. The presence of the organism in the blood was not proved until the second week after infection. In another study (24) following intraperitoneal infection with yeast phase organisms cultures were often positive from the reticulo-endothelial tissues as late as 45 weeks after infection although the lungs and heart's blood were usually negative by culture within 16 weeks after infection. Fungus has been found persistently following infection for an eight month period of observation (27).

By using the intravenous route for experimental inoculation of the yeast form of *Histoplasma capsulatum* the pathogenesis of disseminated histoplasmosis should be simulated. Very few organisms are necessary to establish such an infection. Rowley and Huber (33, 34) have shown that a single viable yeast like aggregate was sufficient to infect a mouse intravenously. *Histoplasma* infections could be regularly and uniformly induced by the intravenous injection of approximately 100 aggregates per mouse regardless of the strain of the organism. Differences in pathogenicity produced by variable strains were not measurable. The dose of yeast cells that was capable of producing overwhelming infection and death in mice substantially differed from that which would produce a chronic infection. Infections produced by 100 yeast like aggregates of *Histoplasma capsulatum* intravenously did not cause death in mice for as long as six months. Intravenous dosages of 10^5 to 10^6 yeast cells killed mice on occasion. Even overwhelming infections with 8×10^6 yeast cells survived for many months without evidence of infection.

The disseminated and chronic lesions of histoplasmosis produced in mice by the intravenous routes as well as by intracerebral, intraperitoneal and intranasal inoculation have all been comparable histopathologically. When the mycelial phase of *Histoplasma capsulatum* is used the conversion to yeast like forms would be expected to occur within the tissues primarily infected. With the

one animal there was a large necrotic area which erupted to the surface. Within this lesion were noted masses of hyaline and many tuberculate chlamydospores of *Histoplasma capsulatum*. There were no yeast phase organisms within this necrotic material. No explanation can be given for this particular observation which has been unconfirmed by others.

Though the intracerebral route of infection is superior in producing high mortality rates in mice (18) such an infection is completely unnatural in its acquisition. However granulomatous meningitis occurs as the most constant pathologic finding following intracerebral infection and could arise from or originate the disseminated form of histoplasmosis. Such lesions in mice inoculated intracerebrally with yeast like organisms have been described by Kipkie and Howell (32) but more specifically by Crayston and Silver (19). Two days after intracerebral inoculation a predominantly lymphocytic cellular infiltration interspersed with some polymorphonuclear leukocytes was noted in the meninges. Histoplasma yeast cells could already be seen within the cellular exudate. The inflammatory reaction usually increased through the fourth day and was at its height by the seventh day. The mononuclear infiltrates in the meninges sometimes extended along the perivascular spaces more deeply into the brain. There were only lymphocytic infiltrates in some animals to extensive granulomatous inflammation with yeast-containing macrophages and a few polymorphonuclear leukocytes in others. Rarely were there giant cells or epithelioid cells. By the end of two weeks there was disappearance of the exudate. Occasional foci of round cells were present in the brain substance. After one month there were variable numbers of abscesses with necrotic centers surrounded by infiltrates of round cells and macrophages in the brain substance. Many yeast cells could be found free within the necrotic material as well as within the macrophages. Cellular reaction did not always accompany the presence of masses of yeast organisms.

Small focal collections of lymphocytes were present in the liver two days after infection indicating early dissemination. The lesions increased in number by one week and had the appearance of typical granulomas. A few granulomas appeared in the spleen. By one month to four months lesions became less in number and

phages containing yeast organisms surrounded the necrotic areas and some polymorphonuclear leukocytes were peripheral to this. There were occasional plasma cells and polymorphonuclear and eosinophilic leukocytes scattered throughout the medulla.

Lymph nodes were variably involved from a few parasitized macrophages to complete replacement of the lymph node tissue with parasitized cells. Monocytes circulating in peripheral blood were found to contain yeast like organisms. Organisms in macrophages were commonly seen in the capillaries of the glomerular tufts and in the interlobular arteries of the kidneys. Though mortality might remain at a low level there appeared to be no healing whatsoever over an eight month period of observational, cultural and pathologic study.

When mice were injected via the intraperitoneal route with yeast organisms (27-28-32) the lesions were mostly confined to the liver, spleen, pancreas and site of inoculation. Lesions were found only occasionally in the lungs, heart and intestine. In none of the animals thus infected were there lesions in the brain. A granulomatous process with a necrotic center was extensive over the visceral surfaces. Organisms were usually found to exist in the necrotic area which was surrounded by epithelioid like cells. Lymphocytes were at the periphery. Macrophages were filled with organisms. Giant cells were rare. Plasma cells and lymphocytes were found located about the periphery. Focal granulomas were scattered throughout the liver and spleen. It was noted that the yeast organisms did not always provoke a granulomatous reaction. Organisms were found to lie free in the tissues without evoking any inflammatory response. The intraperitoneal injection of the histoplasma mycelial form (6) resulted in only a very few lesions in which there were a few macrophages containing the yeast like fungus within the mesentery and the peritoneum of the abdominal cavity.

There is one reported exception to finding only yeast like organisms in the reticulo endothelial system following dissemination of a histoplasma infection. Haley (35) has made the only discovery of the mycelial sporulating stage of *Histoplasma capsulatum* in experimentally infected mice. The animals had been infected intraperitoneally with the yeast form of the organism. On the thirty second day following infection within the liver tissue of only

The many reports of naturally occurring histoplasmosis in dogs have also contributed much to the description of the pathogenesis of the disseminated form of disease (38-51). The histopathological changes in these cases of spontaneous canine histoplasmosis have also shown lesions most frequently present in lungs, liver, spleen, bone marrow, adrenals, lymph nodes, heart, gastrointestinal tract, kidneys, pancreas and meninges. DeMonbreun (38) being able to produce experimental histoplasmosis in puppies by feeding the fungus in milk as well as by intraperitoneal inoculation had concluded that the infection might occur via the alimentary tract. Robinson and McVicker (39) in their pathologic study of 21 cases of spontaneous histoplasmosis in dogs further supported this view that the gastrointestinal tract was the usual portal of entry for the fungus. They were of the opinion that the organisms after ingestion produced lesions in the intestine through which they invaded the bloodstream and were carried to the lungs and other organs.

Ruhe and Carier (55) were able to show that dogs had a considerable natural resistance to histoplasmosis since even massive doses of the yeast organism were not uniformly fatal. They produced experimental histoplasmosis in dogs by injecting a suspension of yeast cells into the right lung through the chest wall. One of the dogs did recover from this experimental infection. When this animal was sacrificed sixteen months after infection, Menges *et al* (56) reported that there were no active histoplasma granulomas present histopathologically in the spleen, lungs or kidneys. In Paras' case (45) the parasite had also been found only within the lung tissues. Scattered residual vascular congestion, fibrous thickening and connective tissue cells attested to the past infection. Consequently, Menges (57-58) first suggested that the primary pulmonary lesion in dogs is produced by the inhalation of spores.

Further substantiation of the prevalence of mild histoplasmosis in the dog and the lung as a portal of entry has been provided by Rowley *et al* (59), Limmons *et al* (60) and Schwarz *et al* (61). Discrete intrapulmonary nodules have been studied pathologically. These well circumscribed lesions were either soft and caseating or firm and calcified. Peribronchial lymph nodes also contained similar nodules. The caseating focus consisted primarily of proliferat-

some livers were remarkably free from disease. Only a very few mice showed activity of the lesions one to four months following infection. When extensive brain abscesses were present the livers were more severely involved with granulomas, scattered lymphocytes, large infiltrates and many yeast cells. Only occasional lesions were found in the spinal canal, heart and lymphoid tissue of the gastrointestinal tract. None were found in the lungs, kidneys or adrenals.

The production of histoplasmosis in mice via the oral route is extremely difficult to achieve as evidenced by studies in our laboratory and by Grayston *et al.* (27, 28).

Experimental systemic histoplasma infections in rabbits have been induced successfully (3, 5, 6, 36, 37) although susceptibility in this animal has been considered very irregular. Spontaneous recovery from experimental histoplasmosis has often been observed. The reactions to the intravenous and intraperitoneal injection of yeast phase *Histoplasma capsulatum* in rabbits is well documented (3, 36, 37). However, only the late pathogenesis of the acute infection is again defined. Granulomatous reaction was noted in various organs with the usual yeast-engorged mononuclear macrophages.

Local cellular response to intraperitoneal infection of histoplasma mycelial phase has been studied acutely and chronically in the rabbit. On the second day after infection, visible milk spots appeared in the omentum and grew in number and size during the first two weeks. Cellularly, these lesions demonstrated increasing numbers of monocytes, macrophages, epithelioid cells and Langhans type giant cells with occasional foreign body giant cells. The specific stimulation of the reticuloendothelial system was manifested by this clearly monocytic involvement. There was gradual regression of the inflammatory process in reverse cellular order during the third and fourth weeks. By six weeks after infection the cellular reaction in the omentum had completely cleared. Cellular changes in the local lymph nodes and peritoneal fluids showed monocytes, epithelioid cells and giant cells as well. In animals sacrificed after one year, few areas of fibrosis and mononuclear cellular infiltrates in livers, spleens and lymph nodes were noted. The fungal organism could not be recognized in the tissue.

Other tissues were also involved in many of the cases. The adipose tissue of the bone marrow was almost completely absent. The erythropoietic elements were greatly reduced. Many reticulo-endothelial cells containing yeast cells, lymphocytes and plasma cells were present. In the heart, small cellular infiltrates composed of lymphocytes, plasma cells and large yeast-containing mononuclear cells were located close to the blood vessels. Myocardial degeneration was present in circumscribed areas. Occasional neutrophils were present in the necrotic foci. Within the kidneys, masses of parasitized macrophages had often infiltrated the interstitial tissue and the glomerular tufts. Small foci of epithelioid cells and aggregates of lymphocytes and plasma cells were contained within the cortex. A few scattered glomeruli showed fibrosis. Peritoneum and omentum showed infiltrates of inflammatory cells with masses of large mononuclear cells containing occasional yeast parasites. Meninges were moderately infiltrated occasionally with parasitized mononuclear cells, lymphocytes and plasma cells. Adrenal glands were hypertrophied and contained infiltrates of macrophages which had invaded the cortex and medulla. Necrosis was observed and *Histoplasma capsulatum* was contained in the macrophages. Tonsillar tissue, the pancreas and the interstitial tissue of testes contained foci of parasitized macrophages. Macrophages had also infiltrated the base of several glossal ulcers.

Experimental histoplasma infections in rats (64), hamsters (65), guinea pigs (66-68), chickens (69) and monkeys (4, 70-71) have produced no new concept in the pathogenesis of histoplasmosis. In general, it can be stated that these animals have shown variable degrees of resistance to infection and consequently have been less suited for experimental study of histoplasmosis.

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ing epithelioid cells interspersed with a few polymorphonuclear leukocytes lymphocytes and plasma cells. The regional lymph nodes contained similar large mononuclear cell tubercles with central caseous necrosis. Some of the lesions were highly organized and encapsulated containing central deposits of calcium. Numerous organisms within the macrophages could be demonstrated both in the pulmonary and lymph node elements of these primary lesions. These lesions are considered to be the typical primary complexes which arise from inhalation of spores in nature and which simulate so well the primary lesion in man.

The typical lesions of disseminated histoplasmosis have been produced in dogs by Farrell (62) after experimental infection with the yeast phase of *Histoplasma capsulatum* by intratracheal inoculation. No clinical disease was produced by giving dogs the same inoculum by the gastric route. Although infection with the mycelial phase by either the intratracheal or intragastric routes was impossible in this study, our own studies using air borne spores have resulted in successful infection of dogs resulting in both fatal disseminated disease and uncomplicated primary infection. The disseminated lesions characterized by both the naturally occurring and the experimentally induced histoplasma infection are significantly the same. Typical granulomas were found within the lungs, liver and spleen.

In lesions of the gastrointestinal tract the subserosal layer was infiltrated with lymphocytes plasma cells and numerous macrophages. Infiltrates were usually heaviest in the submucosal layer and often involved Peyer's patches. Necrosis and ulceration of the mucosa were frequently present in the areas of the larger infiltrates. Phagocytes containing the yeast organism were present in the intestinal wall free on the mucosal surface and sometimes about the vessels within the muscle layers. Mesenteric lymph nodes showed marked proliferation of yeast engorged reticulo endothelial cells. The architecture of the nodes was frequently destroyed. Large foci of necrosis were present. Only an occasional giant cell was seen. Plasma cells were in abundance. Infiltration of the capsule with lymphocytes and plasma cells had occurred. Areas of marked edema and fibrous proliferation were present particularly prominent about the arterial and venous channels.

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THE PATHOGENESIS OF HISTOPLASMOSIS IN THE HUMAN BODY

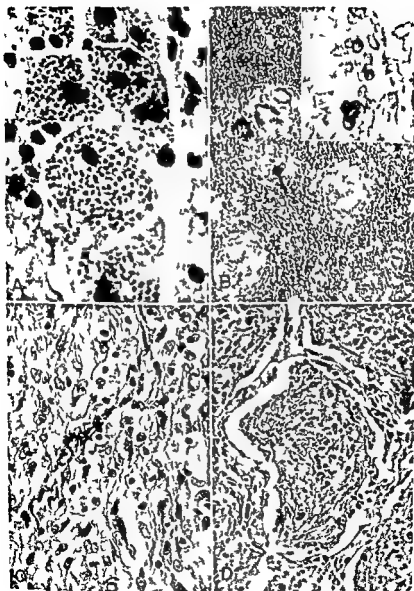
HENRY C. SWEANY

The beginning and course of histoplasmosis in man still has many unsolved aspects. The progressive and fulminating type where there is a rapid sequence of progression from one organ to another with the finding of parasites in all the organs and even in the blood stream was first observed and described by Darling (1) and later by several others. The more chronic forms and especially the types having encapsulated caseous or calcified lesions still offer some problems for solution. The various known courses and possibilities will be reviewed.

The experimental work of Procknow (2) on the course of the spores of *H. capsulatum* in the mouse is perhaps a good indication in favor of a similar course in man. Since this experiment cannot be repeated in man we must make an assumption with some justification that after the spores are inhaled they go through a similar cycle in man to what has been shown in mice. Furthermore we may assume that on inhaling many to hundreds of spores as is frequently observed the same process is repeated over and over again at each small focus where the spores are located in the alveoli or in the smaller bronchioles.

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Fig 1 (A) Adrenal gland demonstrating histiocytes packed with *Histoplasma capsulatum* H & E x820 AFIP Acc 61428 (B) Abdominal lymph node with epithelioid-cell granulomas resembling lesions of Boeck's sarcoid H & E x113 AFIP Acc 61120. Insert (right upper) Gridley fungus-stain demonstrating *Histoplasma* organisms within an epithelioid-cell granuloma of this lymph node x1250 (C) Subcutaneous nodule in which the reaction resembled fibrosing granulation tissue. Only a few *Histoplasma* cells were seen H & E x445 AFIP Acc 89775 (D) Lung in which the reaction was that of organizing pneumonia H & E x267 AFIP Acc 206008. With special stains many *Histoplasma* organisms were seen. (Used by permission of the *Am J Clin Path* the author Chapman H Binford and the Armed Forces Institute of Pathology Washington D C.)



After these preliminary assumptions are made there are still unknowns for the disease process has many variations. At one time it seemed to be a rather simple process extending from the primary focus to the adjoining lymphatics lymph nodes the blood stream and then to the various organs throughout the body. In the progression the yeast bodies are found in great profusion in the macrophages and caseous foci. Since these patients usually do not survive but a few months large numbers of parasites can usually be found in all the organs. But the rapidly progressive infections are now known to be rare compared to the more slowly progressive types.

Recently it has been observed that single lesions sometimes with one or several satellites may be the most common first localization. The course seems to parallel that of primary tuberculosis in its principal aspects with calcification and apparent healing. Straub and Schwarz (3) and Schwarz (1) independently in this monograph have indicated strongly that the course is in many respects similar except in the causative agents. The parasites which are not genetically morphologically or chemically like tubercle bacilli do grow at a comparable *slow rate of speed* and perhaps are met by similar body defences as they advance through the body. There has been such an extensive accumulation of facts regarding the course of tuberculosis in the body including the primary postprimary and true re infection that it would seem that the principal courses and actions in the body are now established facts. The temptation is great therefore to apply everything that is known concerning tuberculosis to histoplasmosis since so many features are similar and the evolution of the lesions follow along similar lines.

It would be risky however to assume too much similarity since there has not been time enough or sufficient material of histoplasmosis from which to draw definite conclusions. Already there are observations on histoplasmosis that do not follow those that have been described for tuberculosis. For example there are only a few instances in the literature where primary tuberculosis begins as a shower of lung lesions with a corresponding involvement of the lymph nodes. Owing to its nature histoplasmosis is frequently if not predominantly seeded in that manner.

Another difference that is borne out by roentgenological and pathological evidence is the greater tendency of lesions of histo-

plasmosis to take up calcium (5, 6). While both diseases calcify, the difference is too regular to disregard in both the primary lesions and also in the large coin or spherical lesions. The reasons for the greater tendency for the lesions of histoplasmosis to calcify is still obscure. Perhaps there is greater local activity than in tuberculosis, more enzymic action, and more proteolysis creating more free ions for union with the basic calcium which seeps in from the blood stream.

The lymphatics of the peribronchial regions and the mediastinum are more prone to develop tumor-like masses simulating cancer or resulting in pressures that have been found to lead to bronchiectasis (6) and even blood in flow stasis to the heart by constriction of the venae cavae. From the limited observations that have been described so far regarding this phase of histoplasmosis, it would seem that they will outnumber any similar type of formation that has been described for tuberculosis.

Whatever the cause may be, there has appeared a difference that has become obvious to all those who have studied the two diseases in the greater incidence of multiple lesions in the spleen in histoplasmosis. Schwartz (7) feels that any case having more than four to five calcified lesions in the spleen may be considered as histoplasmosis. In most places today that is a pretty good rule, but it must be remembered that the observations on histoplasmosis have been made after the advent of drug therapy for tuberculosis and at a time when huge doses of tubercle bacilli have been reduced by public health methods.

Although the spleen is involved more in histoplasmosis, tuberculosis may also cause disseminated lesions. (See Fig. 1(B)). In the older literature, multiple calcifications as well as caseous tuberculous lesions of the spleen (8) have been reported. In my own studies (9) I have found several cases, mostly in young negroes, where multiple caseous lesions have been found in tuberculosis with some undergoing calcification. At the time of these observations, tubercle bacilli were found present in all but two of these cases. It must be admitted that no stains were made at that time for the parasites of histoplasmosis, but since the patients were out and out tuberculous in every way and since the findings were observed in a region where histoplasmosis was not common, it seemed logical to consider

them tuberculous. We can't draw too sharp a line therefore regarding the number of calcifications caused by either disease since both diseases are similar in their progression throughout the body and the nature of the lesion produced. The cause of the difference partly at least was that most patients died of tuberculosis before the lesions in the spleen had time to calcify. The general trend in tuberculosis is for the disease to terminate early when many caseous foci appear in the spleen whereas in histoplasmosis the process is relatively much more benign and more lesions persist and become calcific.

The general rule at this time and in the endemic areas particularly is that many dense calcific lesions in the spleen may be considered as histoplasmosis.

As the progression of the disease continues throughout the body there is a tendency for the parasites to locate in certain other organs beyond the lymphatics (in addition to the spleen) notably the adrenals, bone marrow and liver. In disseminated tuberculosis the same organs are involved but from the evidence to date there appears a far greater tendency for histoplasmosis to involve the adrenals than does tuberculosis. Binford (10) found 21 out of 22 fatal cases with involvement of the adrenals. Rarely does tuberculosis strike the adrenals heavily at its first onslaught but histoplasmosis attacks them commonly in the progressive and overwhelming types of the disease. The tuberculous infection of the adrenals usually do not produce symptoms until years after the first infection when an Addisonian syndrome may appear.

From the histories of many chronic cases in our studies the disease process seems to follow a definite pattern. First is in cases that have had strong possibilities of exposure to dust that may be suspected of bearing spores. Second the patients are generally in the latter half of life and undergoing early deterioration. Most of our cases have been found in farmers between 50 and 75 years of age. That is the resistance to all infections has been lowered and either a new seeding of spores has taken place or there has been an exacerbation of an old lesion. Both of these courses have been found in cases coming under our observation. Many have shown recent infiltrative lesions with or without lymph node complexes that seem to point to a recent infection. Others have shown a definite

exacerbation in and around caseous and calcified lesions where there had been an early infection and for various reasons the parasites were reawakened and set up a new and active disease process.

The question of a re-infection on an old entirely healed infection is one that cannot be answered at this time for it is not known when the first infection is healed if it is ever really healed with all the parasites dead. The problem of the life of the parasites in old lesions is therefore one that is difficult to determine and certainly difficult to resolve by experimental means. It can best be done by long observation of a great many cases where clinical x-ray and laboratory studies have been carried out. In a few cases in our work this has been accomplished but up to this time we have been content to demonstrate parasites in old lesions rather than to try to prove their viability. From the appearances of the yeast in old lesions most of them seem to appear no different than other known living yeast. Yet in a few attempts to grow them our results have been entirely negative. Puckett (9) was able to obtain only one positive culture out of 22 cases of round lesions or as they have been called coin lesions. It is doubtful if these results represent the true situation for we have not been able to obtain growth in any encapsulated lesion although several have been recent and progressive with abundant parasites present as shown by the GMS stain. Methods are still inadequate therefore to grow the forms that we are able to identify not to mention the possibility of any unrecognizable forms.

It may be well to state at this point that less than half of the open active cases have produced growths on medium on the first few attempts made. The remainder have required numerous culture plates and then perhaps only one or two colonies appeared. Many times the colonies are overgrown by contaminating yeasts especially by *Candida* and bacteria.

There are some observations that may be worthwhile in indicating possible viability in old lesions. One is the presence of buds on the yeast bodies. Budding is evidence of recent growth activity and many old lesions have shown budding and short elongated bodies that may be considered abortive mycelia. Several ossified lesions have shown budding in the yeast bodies. The other questionable indication is the presence of good birefringence on polar

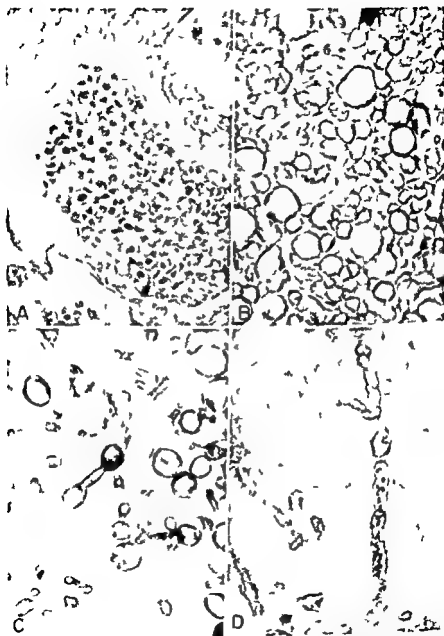


Fig 21. Section of thrombus aortic valve. Photomicrographs were all made from sections taken from the same block and represent areas only a few high power microscopic field apart. AMH Acc 204556 (No culture for fungi) →

scopy. In some very old lesions the parasites have been merely ghosts with poor or no birefringence at all. This feature is at no time reliable for it is recognized that polysaccharides may remain long after the parasites are dead. The question of the length of time parasites survive in encapsulated lesions therefore is one that has caused much concern and is far from settled.

In studying a large number of lesions there is commonly a great variation in the size or shape of the parasite. Some of them appeared to be rapidly growing by budding. Others were stationary and others undergoing various stages of degeneration down to mere ghosts of the original. There is no doubt that the parasites are vulnerable and are destroyed in some lesions or seem to lose their usual morphology. Sizes vary from one micron up to five microns.

A few words should be said about the variation in size of the parasite in different organs of the body and in the various types of disease. In the fulminating and fatal forms there is generally a continued progression in the reticulo-endothelial cells of the round or pear shaped yeast bodies of average size (5-6 microns). As caseous centers develop there is a marked destruction of the parasites leaving ghosts and the granular debris mentioned before. Under certain conditions as shown by Binford (10) the parasites may become greatly enlarged up to 15-20 microns in diameter and sometimes there is production of abortive and even some genuine hyphae. The hyphae may lengthen into many joints and actual threads of some length. What bearing these changes have on the development of lesions is not known. It may be that the formation of hyphae is the result of a certain type of lesion rather than a typical process.

An observation that has been increasingly common is the formation of one, two or even several granular residues in the ends

Case originally diagnosed as malaria. Lesions in adrenal gland typical for histoplasmosis. (A) Viable tissue of heart valve. Histoplasma of normal size which stained well with hematoxylin and eosin $\times 1750$. (B) A field from within thrombus but adjacent to A. Large forms almost invisible with hematoxylin and eosin stain but well stained with Gridley fungus stain $\times 1250$. (C) In thrombus adjacent to B but nearer inner surface of thrombus. Large forms with hyphae. Gridley fungus stain $\times 1250$. (D) Inner surface of thrombus. Septate hyphae. Gridley fungus stain $\times 1250$. (Used by permission of *Im J Clin Path* the author Chapman H. Binford and the Armed Forces Institute of Pathology Washington D. C.)

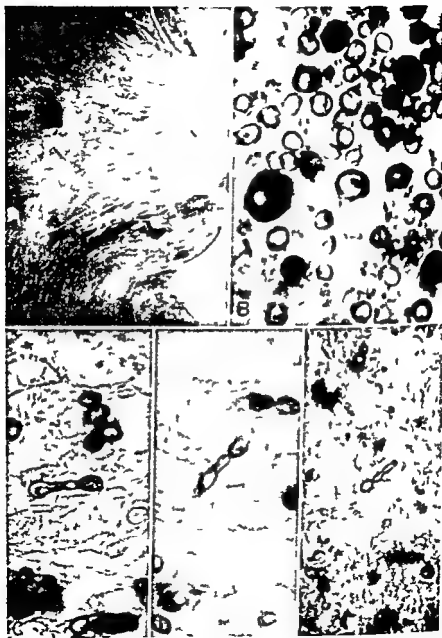


Fig 2b (A) Necrotizing renal papillitis caused by *Histoplasma capsulatum*
H & E x6 AFIP Acc 325234 (B) Duplicate section of A The large forms
→

and walls of the old parasites. Darling's original work has sketched the inclusions in the yeast quite clearly. At first these small forms were passed by but after seeing them in increasing numbers and also recalling the times we have seen microspores free or in a matrix with other typical yeast and abortive buds left in old ghosts it occurred to us that these bodies deserved study and more serious consideration. The reference of Binford (10) to microspores as small as one micron in size and more especially the fine detailed description of Pine (11) who observed inclusion bodies in *H. capsulatum* seem to indicate that there may be significance to these small forms and there may be more yet to the evolution of the parasites than is known at present. While no budding of the smallest forms has been demonstrated typical birefringence has been observed on the forms less than 0.5 of a micron and transition forms have been seen up to 2 or more microns. In many instances these forms arose in the ghosts of yeast bodies. On observing a great many of these small granules they seemed to represent a budding process that was interrupted by a too rapid destruction of the yeast leaving the bud as an abortive granule just protruding from the tip of the yeast or actually trapped in or just beneath the wall. If any proof is ever found to the theory of origin of microspores it may help to clear up some of the underground phases of histoplasmosis where the regular yeasts cannot be found.

Following a discussion of microspores it is fitting now to discuss the development of the various types of chronic lesions. After the first appearance of the parasites in the chronic forms there seems to be many courses taken by the disease process. The first is the infiltrative lesion that resembles chronic inflammatory infiltrates of tuberculosis, abscess or even cancer. The parasites appear to be phagocytized by the macrophages and in the early phases may be stained by PAS and the Gridley stain. They soon disappear from

were present only at the tip of the necrotic papilla. Periodic acid Schiff method with light green counterstain. $\times 1250$ (C and D) Necrotic adrenal gland in a case of histoplasmosis. Short hyphae and moderately enlarged forms. Gridley fungus-stain. $\times 1250$ AFIP Acc 64868 (E) Necrotic renal medulla in histoplasmosis. Note short hyphae. Gridley fungus-stain. $\times 1250$ AFIP Acc 579628 (Used by permission of the *Am J Clin Path* the author Chapman H Binford and the Armed Forces Institute of Pathology Washington D C)

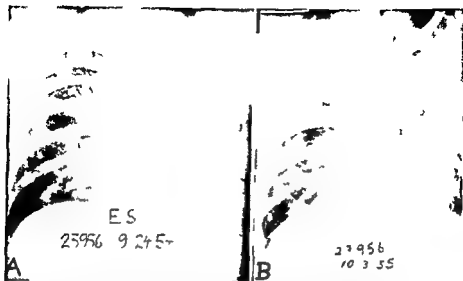


Fig. 31 (A) Roentgenogram of E. S. B15 No. 23956 taken on September 24 1951 showing a consolidated left lung (B) The same as Figure 31 (A) taken on October 3 1955 with a double exposure to show the nature of the lesion on the left. This patient was always positive for a f.b. and turned negative on antituberculosis drugs. (Used by permission of Dr. J. A. Myers Editor and *Diseases of the Chest*)

view however and the C.M.S. stain reveals only small black dots that cannot be distinguished from dark staining, artefacts. Yet they seem to be present within the macrophages and may be remnants of the parasites. So far as we know now however the parasites to all intents and purposes have been destroyed in the macrophages. After the caseous mass becomes encapsulated months and years later however typical yeast bodies almost always appear in the caseous centers. This has been observed so often that it seems that the parasites have arisen from some occult source. Sometimes small granules may be seen in the caseous centers that have bluish green staining matrix associated with definite yeast bodies. Later on typical yeast bodies may develop in these small colonies. It is possible for a few typical parasites to have been overlooked but in most of the chronic lesions the yeast forms are so numerous that some other origin must be suspected. Since the yeast bodies are non motile and are placed at regular intervals nearly always in large colonies it seems highly



Fig 3b Left (A) A low power view of a section of a dense parenchymal calcification taken from the resected left lung of patient shown in Figures 3a (A) and 3a (B). Two areas are outlined in the center of the lesion: one by dots at 'a' and another by black line at 'b'. H & E $\times 15$. (B) A squared off area of Figure 3b (A) showing bony character of lesion. H & E $\times 90$. Right (A) A microscopic view of region marked at 'a' in Figure 3a (A) showing numerous typical yeast bodies. G M S stain $\times 1066$. (B) Polaroscopic view of (A) $\times 1066$. (C) A view of field marked off at 'b' in Figure 3a (B). Note the numerous small dark staining bodies that may be developing into yeast bodies. C M S stain $\times 1066$. (D) Another view of the field of 'b' in Figure 3a (A). G M S stain $\times 1066$. (Used by permission of Dr J. A. Myers, Editor and Diseases of the Chest)



probable that they have arisen from some obscure source. Further more there are transition forms present that seem to bridge the gap to more typical yeast bodies. These possible changes however are only speculative and at present are to be considered only as possibilities.

If and when the lesion sloughs into a cavity cultures usually become positive and the parasites appear in the cavity walls especially in the caseous centers of the walls. The peripheral macrophages usually do not reveal any parasites at this stage of development. Whether the parasites were ever present in them is only conjectural at present.

In the encapsulated lesions the parasites are usually found in great numbers far in the interior of the encapsulated mass and almost entirely in centers where recent caseation has developed. Even in old ossified lesions small pockets of parasites may be found in the centers of the lesions. Some appear fresh and vigorous others may be very small and in a matrix while others are poorly stained and ghost like. As already stated the time these bodies may survive is still one of the least understood problems of histoplasmosis. It seems safe to assume that so long as budding is present life was present at least a short time before.

As the disease becomes chronic and fibroid there is a tendency for healing to take place in the walls of the cavities but the process seems to extend into the tissues and the cavity walls become thicker and usually hyalinized but nearly always the surfaces become slick and cyst like. At the same time the disease is progressing slowly into the tissues outside of the wall of the cavity.

The round lesion as first described by Puckett (12) may keep enlarging when it is difficult to find any parasites either by culture or staining. In some lesions numerous sections have failed to reveal parasites while others only show them in the early pockets of casea

Fig. 4 (The lesion from which these are taken are shown in the x ray in Chapter 2, Figures 1 and 2 by Dr. John Polk.) (A) (Upper) H 30 L B 26578 Showing macrophages in the periphery of the lesion with what might be parasites PAS stain $\times 1066$ (P) (Center) Same G M S stain showing coal pigment and small black bodies that may be nuclei of yeast (C) (Lower) Same as (B)

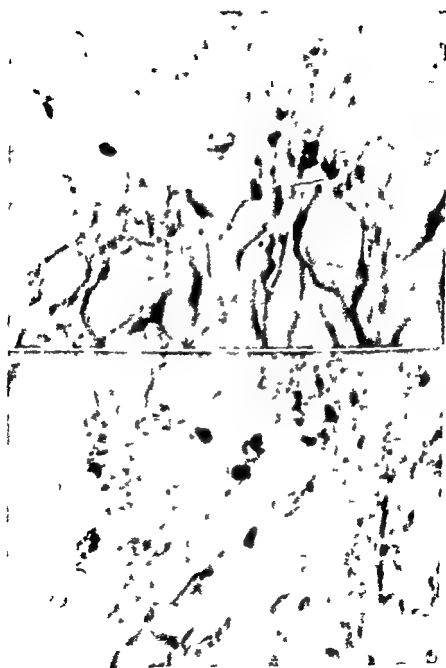




Fig 6 Typical round lesion (cystic lesion) of proven Histoplasmosis at (A) (left) and proven tuberculomas at (P) (right) (Reproduced from Myers J V Editor *Diseases of the Chest Including the Heart* (Springfield Thomas 1939) by permission of the Editor and Publisher. This and other illustrations by the author originally appeared in an article by Sidney C. Collier, Collier and Jones *Dis Chest* 1: 316 (1938).

tion that develop late in the process and well toward the center of the lesions. As mentioned before positive cultures on encapsulated lesions is rarely ever found yet apparently viable forms exist.

In our work we noted two types of round lesions, one a gradually expanding lesion that builds up like the winding of a ball of twine, another where there is an encapsulated infiltrate varying in size from a few millimeters to 4 or more centimeters.

One of the greatest enigmas in the lesions of histoplasmosis is the formation of chronic pneumonitis. There is a type that may be called a chronic pneumonia with organizing fibrinous exudate con-



Fig 5 (Same as Figure 4—Margins of caseous area) (A) (Upper) B 30 No 96578. A high power view of edge of caseation showing fibrous below and caseation above with the appearance of bean shaped bodies that may be parasites starting to grow. G. M. S. x1066. (B) (Lower) Same except the development is more advanced.



Fig 7 Taken from Pathologic findings in benign pulmonary histoplasmosis by Sweany *et al* (*Dis Chest* 34 6 1958) (A) A reduced roentgenogram of E. L. S. A 15 No 24 493 Showing a spherical lesion in the left midfield with

training a few macrophages and the other type a chronic granuloma that sometimes can't be distinguished from sarcoidosis. Both of these types have been well described by Binford and others. Parasites are rarely if ever found in either type and in the cases I have studied no granules have been observed.

The evolution of ordinary re-infection type of lesion is probably much like the evolution of a similar infiltrative tuberculosis process where there is usually no involvement of the lymph nodes. The lesion becomes caseous in the center and after a time shows a tendency to form stellate crevasses in the center that soon find their way into the adjoining bronchi after which there is a gradual shelling-out of the cavity. New foci form more toward the base of the lung as in tuberculosis and the same evolution takes place all over again. There is a tendency of these cavities to slough out the caseous material which is free of polymorphs and leave behind a slick-walled cavity. This is a departure from the progress in untreated tuberculosis which keeps a pyogenic membrane made up largely of polymorphs with a smaller number of monocytes and lymphocytes.

A perplexing problem is presented in round lesions that are typical histoplasmoses with onion ring formations but wherein no foci of caseation nor yeast bodies were found. Serial sections may have found both caseous foci and parasites since only about 0.1% of the lesion is represented on one 6 micron section.

Alternative views are that there are no living parasites remaining or that there is a silent phase that has not yet begun to metabolize and produce caseation with typical yeast bodies.

Irrespective of the ultimate cause and result an earnest entreaty to pathologists is to search diligently for caseous—preferably encapsulated caseous—foci where yeasts are found.

In addition to the various unknowns already discussed so much is yet to be learned about the course of chronic histoplasmosis in the body that a few questions may be raised at this time. We know

pleurum at the left base and bronchiectasis in the right middle lobe. (B) An enlargement of the spherical lesion of (A). (C) A low power section of spherical lesion. Note the two centers of dense caseation and calcification outlined by small dots at a and a and the partial rings of less marked calcification.

(Used by permission of Dr. J. A. Myers, Editor and *Diseases of the Chest*.)



Fig 7 Taken from Pathologic findings in benign pulmonary histoplasmosis by Sweany *et al* (*Dis Chest* 34:6 1958) (A) A reduced roentgenogram of E. L. S. A 15 No 21493 Showing a spherical lesion in the left midfield with

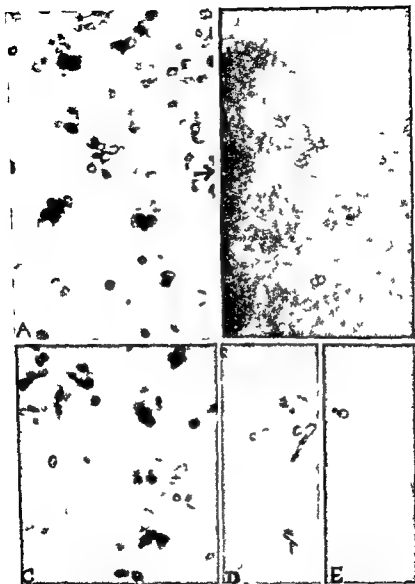


FIG. 11 (A) A microscopic field of a C. M. S. stained section in the dense central calcification marked *a* in Figure 7(C) showing innumerable yeast bodies $\times 1133$. (B) A polarized view of same showing Maltese crosses $\times 1133$. (C) A microscopic field of stained section extending outward into the zone marked *b* in Figure 7(C). G. M. S. stain $\times 1133$. (D) A microscopic field of stained section still further out toward the periphery. (E) Similar to (D). (Used by permission of Dr. J. A. Myers, Editor, *Diseases of the Chest*.)

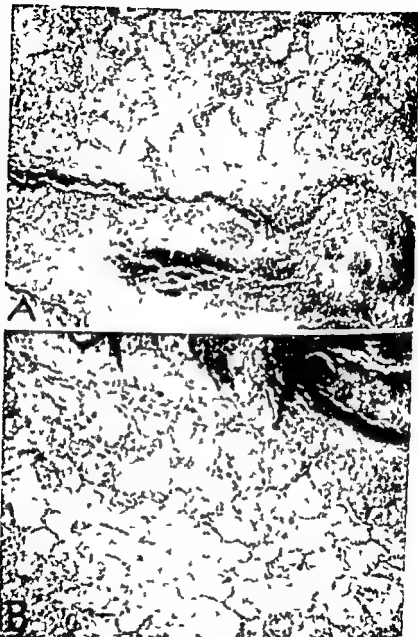


Fig 8 (A) A microphotograph of the central area of Figure 7(C) (the blood vessel marks the general location) Note the outlines of the alveoli caused by the calcium deposits in the alveolar wall and possibly to a calcium salt of nucleic acid in the disintegrated nuclei of the alveolar walls x48 Von Kossa stain (B) Another view similar to that of (A) (Used by permission of Dr J A Myers Editor and *Diseases of the Chest*)

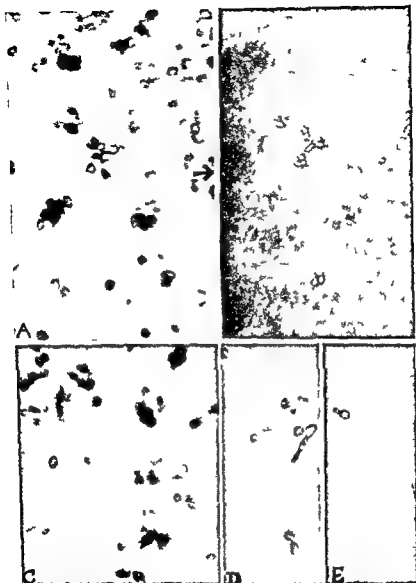


Fig 9 (A) A microscopic field of a G M S stained section in the dense central calcification marked at a in Figure 7(C) showing innumerable yeast bodies $\times 1133$ (B) A polaroscopic view of same showing Maltese crosses $\times 1133$ (C) A microscopic field of stained section extending out into the zone marked b in Figure 7(C) G M S stain $\times 1133$ (D) A microscopic field of stained section still further out toward the periphery (E) Similar to (D)

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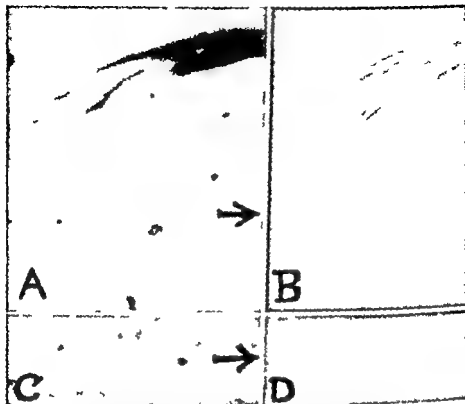
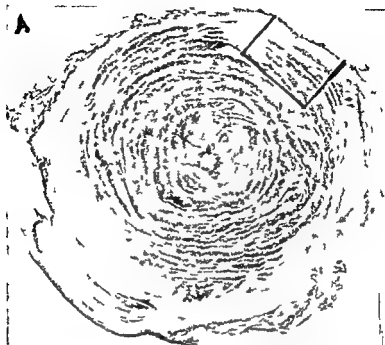


Fig. 10 (A) A zone marked by *c* in Figure 7(C) where there is still fibrous tissue. The dark staining bodies are smaller and assume a round granular appearance. Most show no birefringence but one in upper left is typical G M S stain $\times 1135$. (B) Polariscopic view of (A). Only 2 or 3 show a faint birefringence. G M S stain $\times 1135$. (C) Still further out in the fibrous tissue G M S stain $\times 1135$. (D) Polariscopic view of (C). Only one shows typical birefringence. Others only show points of light. They may be artefacts. $\times 1135$.
(Used by permission of Dr J. A. Myers Editor and Diseases of the Chest)

Fig. 11 (A) A stained section of a spherical lesion of M S 199 S203, 53 showing the ring formation from the center outward. Note the heavy callous on one side. This heavy button like plaque on one side is present on several spherical lesions and its cause is not understood. H & E $\times 45$. (B) A higher magnification of area marked off in (A). The calcification does not follow the fibrils but is more related to distance from the center. H & E $\times 20$. (Used by permission of Dr J. A. Myers Editor and Diseases of the Chest)



that in tuberculosis where there has been a small healed primary infection that a re infection complex may form. Do all calcifications in the parenchyma and lymph nodes in histoplasmosis represent a primary lesion or may it not be a re infection complex as sometimes occurs in tuberculosis. May not heavily infected people who expectorate large numbers of parasites in the sputum pass the infection to others as is done in tuberculosis. It seems possible but no case has yet been found. Are there any other portals of entry than in the lungs such as the tonsils gastro intestinal tract or the skin? Outside of penile lesions reported by Curtis and Harrell (13) Curtis and Crawley (13a) and Van Pernis and associates (14) laryngeal infection nothing definite yet has been reported.

In conclusion it may be stated that what once looked like a relatively simple process has turned out to have many unknown phases and obscure facets of the disease histoplasmosis especially in its retrogression healing and exacerbation. The relationships of the known forms of the parasite is not the process it appeared to be when only the fulminating types were known. Now there has appeared many new aspects and many gaps in our knowledge of the host parasite relationship. Much depends on a more thorough knowledge of what happens to the parasite in different situations and in the many chronic phases of the disease. Pathogenesis of the disease in the human body is therefore only partly understood and the unknowns can only be resolved by a more intense program of study.

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THE PRIMARY LESION IN HISTOPLASMOSIS

JAN SCHWARTZ

INTRODUCTION

The primary lesion in histoplasmosis has been recognized only recently even though its presence on x ray and at autopsy must have been noted by many examiners in the form of caseated or calcified foci. Such lesions were interpreted arbitrarily until lately as tuberculous. After it was shown that many persons with calcified intrathoracic lesions failed to react to tuberculin (1-8, 11) it was concluded that the cause probably was not tuberculosis. No positive answer about the anatomical findings was given until the work of Christie (3), Schulz (11-15) and Straub (18). Schulz (14, 15) has described in 1 autopsy the presence of active primary complexes documented with beautiful gross pictures and demonstration of the organism. Straub (18) specifically has established the constant development of a primary complex after infection with *Histoplasma capsulatum*. He demonstrated this entity in 67% of non selected routine autopsies in the endemic area. At the point of the primary infection a pneumonitis develops which in the majority of cases conduces to necrosis and caseation. The early lesions which have been observed are circumscribed and very similar to the primary lesions in tuberculosis. They are located subpleurally and are discrete but they frequently get much larger than the corresponding tuberculous lesion. The organism *Histoplasma capsulatum* can be demonstrated throughout the lesion when active and in the center of the lesion even after many years. The pleural reaction is as a rule minimal and may consist of slight fibrinous pleurisy or of an out pouring of a small number of round cells much less frequently polymorpho nuclear leukocytes. Small satellite nodules often develop in the immediate vicinity of the primary focus and later may

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be incorporated into the extension of the main focus. How much and how often the incorporation of such collateral foci contributes to the growth of the primary focus is hard to assess.

Parrot (12) has stated in 1876 that the lymph nodes of the



Fig 1 Active primary complex in histoplasmosis of 15 months old girl. Large caseous primary focus subpleural in lower third of lower lobe. Caseation of regional lymph nodes which are markedly enlarged. Disseminated histoplasmosis with innumerable miliary and somewhat larger foci in the pulmonary parenchyma. (Courtesy of Dr Dale M. Hulz from *Am J Clin Path* 24: 1196, 1954)



Fig. 2. M. S. Primary active focus of histoplasmosis. Thin and incomplete fibrous wall surrounding the focus. Lymphangitic streaks and perifocal inflammation are present. Formation of small secondary foci outside the wall are indications for the mechanism of potential increase in size of the primary lesion (Van Cieson Elastic—21x).

pulmonary hilus always reflect like a mirror the pathology developing in the parenchyma of the lungs. Il n'est pas à cette période de la vie d'affection pulmonaire qui ne se reflète d'une manière très-nette sur les ganglions bronchiques ils sont comme le miroir des poumons et réciproquement il n'y a pas d'adenopathie bronchique qui n'ait une origine pulmonaire. This law of Parrot applies to histoplasmosis as it does to most other granulomatous diseases.*

The formation of a primary complex (consisting of the parenchymatous focus and satellite lymph nodes) is most conclusively seen in tuberculosis, syphilis, sporotrichosis, coccidioidomycosis, rickettsial diseases, etc. If this principle would be more widely known the many case reports of primary laryngeal, cutaneous, oral, anal, etc. fungus infections would have never been written. They bear rather eloquently the ignorance of the writer about this principle—the law of Parrot.



Fig 5 A 3513 Large calcified (arrested) primary focus with relatively soft rim and rock like centre in the lung. Huge satellite lymph nodes with masses of tippled calcification in peribronchial location. The medial half of the lymph node at left has been removed to permit visualization of bronchial lumen. Multiple splenic calcifications were found in this person.

The lymph nodes form an important part of the inflammatory process in histoplasmosis and are regularly involved and caseated during the primary infection. The lymph nodes can be very large in primary histoplasmosis and can liquefy and perforate into the bronchus just as tuberculous lymph nodes sometimes do. The lymph node component parallels the development of the primary focus and generally one is impressed by the similarity of development of caseation or calcification which can be seen in the primary focus as compared with the satellite lymph nodes.

Darling (6) mentioned fibrocystic tubercles in bronchial lymph nodes but if one considers that his case may have had tuberculosis in addition to histoplasmosis one cannot accept the report



Fig 4 The growth of the primary lesion can be studied on the picture showing the incorporation of a small nodule which had formed outside the thin fibrous capsule of the focus into the main mass of necrosis and caseation (A 3513-23x) (Deeper cut of lesion seen in Fig 3)

is conclusive demonstration of a pulmonary primary histoplasmic complex. It is also well to remember that Ghon's monograph (9) which made the concept of a primary complex known and scientifically acceptable appeared several years after Darling's first observation of histoplasmosis.

Christie (3) observed in a ten months old infant two calcified nodules of 3-4 mm in diameter in each lower lobe with granulomatous lesions in the hilar lymph nodes. Histoplasma was recovered by culture but no information was given as to whether it came from one or both lung lesions or from the lymph nodes. Some doubt arises whether this really represents a primary focus since there were bilateral lesions. Kuzma (10) described a caseous nodule in the lung but failed to mention the presence of satellite lymph nodes.

Puckett (13) described two primary complexes but since the material was surgically removed it would be hard to prove that these are true primary lesions. However the fact that peripheral caseated lesions with hilar lymph nodes existed strongly suggests that it really represented a primary complex.

All of Puckett's (13) solitary lesions were subpleurally located and he expresses the thought that they represent primary lesions which have enlarged. The distribution of his lesions is rather inter-



Fig 5 3353 Huge calcified subpleural primary focus with (calcified) pleural lymphangitis traceable to satellite lymph node containing calcific lesions (arrow)

esting right upper lobe—12 right middle lobe—14 right lower lobe—11 left upper lobe—12 left lower lobe—17 which very greatly simulates the distribution we have found in primary foci (see Table II)

Presently it is not known whether progression of the primary focus into chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis exists (but to carry on with the analogy to tuberculosis one has to assume so) In view of the extensive caseation in the center of some primary foci it appears likely that breakdown and cavitation occurs which then could be called a primary cavity analogous to similar happenings in tuberculosis On the other hand it is conceivable that some primary lesions develop into a so-called histoplasmoma We have seen pulmonary lesions which were rather large and had typical concentric lamination characteristically seen in histoplasmomas but which undoubtedly were primary lesions in view of the presence of satellite lymph nodes



Fig. 6 314x Huge primary (calcified) focus of histoplasmosis with concentric layering reminiscent of structure seen in so-called histoplasmosis. Massive calcification of regional lymph node

THE RECENT PRIMARY FOCUS

To judge from the relatively small accumulated experience the primary active lesion in histoplasmosis begins as a bronchopneumonia with phagocytic cells (containing the organism *Histoplasma capsulatum*) filling the alveoli. In later stages the histoplasmic inflammation can exhibit a great variety of tissue response: one can see only histiocytic proliferation or epithelioid cell tubercles with or without necrotic centers filled with polymorphonuclear leukocytes or areas of inflammation with leukocytes dominating the picture. *Mutatis mutandis* the same is true in the specific case of the primary active lesion in the lung. We have seen foci which on gross inspection appeared to be rather well circumscribed but not encapsulated and which had the yellow color of caseation. Under the microscope such lesions blended slowly with the surrounding lung tissue without exhibiting the sharp limit suspected on gross appearance. In early cases the lung had a peculiar type of desquamative inflammation with densely packed phagocytes in the alveoli.

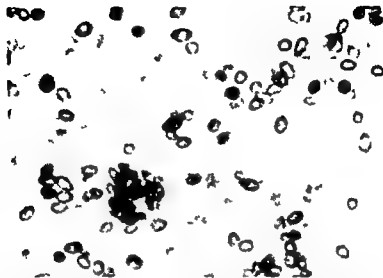


Fig. 7. The primary calcified lung focus. The Crocott silver stain reveals innumerable yeast cells in clusters (representing groups lying in phagocytes) and independently. Notice fairly uniform size and oval shape. (Crocott—1300x.)

Histoplasma was present in the histiocytic elements. The lung structure in some of these lesions showed little alteration and not only were the elastic fibers visible but many alveolar walls were clearly recognizable even on HF stain. In more advanced foci necrosis ensues which however may be incomplete for considerable time. Finally however the center of the larger lesions especially becomes completely caseated. Polymorphonuclear leukocytes have in our experience never been a dominant feature which makes it different from the early primary lesion of tuberculosis. The densely filled alveoli containing desquamated alveolar cells and histiocytes are indeed characteristic for histoplasmosis. The formation of a capsule is not in early reaction and the slow fading out of the center of the inflammation is microscopically obvious even after many weeks of duration of the primary focus. Lymphangitis becomes obvious microscopically and sometimes even grossly if the pleural lymphspaces are involved. The satellite lymph nodes seldom show complete caseation and frequently microscopically show discrete

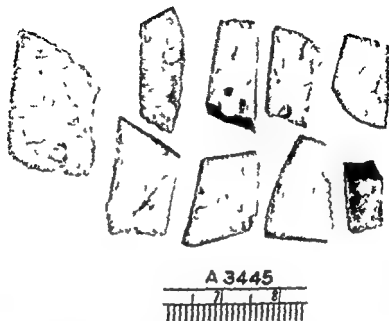


Fig 8 Numerous calcific foci in the spleen with *Histoplasma capsulatum* in the center are results and remnants of hematic spread during primary infection period. Notice concentric structure of splenic lesions.

epithelioid cell tubercles with or without central necrosis. Seldom the number of recognizable fungi is great in the lymphadenitis. If diffuse involvement of the lymph nodes occurs they become markedly enlarged and rather brownish yellow with an edematous appearance very different from the clear yellow of the tuberculous caseation.

Whether there is progression of healing is regulated by immunologic processes which escape morphologic observation.

The result of healing (the arrested primary complex) will be described in the following chapter.

MORPHOLOGY OF THE ARRESTED PRIMARY COMPLEX

Already grossly there is some difference between the healed primary complex of histoplasmosis and tuberculosis. In the latter the lesions are usually small and rather hard to find in many instances. In tuberculosis it is not unusual to find calcific foci of

1 or 2 mm which can be located only after thorough palpation and/or multiple sectioning of pulmonary tissue occasionally only after x ray examination of the lungs which have been removed from the body. In histoplasmosis the situation is quite different. The foci in the lung and lymph nodes are very prominent measure frequently 0.5 cm up to 3 cm and more. There is hardly ever a problem in locating the pulmonary or lymphadenitic component of the primary complex (2, 17, 18).

Another gross difference especially in the lymph nodes is in the composition of the lesion since in histoplasmosis numerous discrete chalky lesions are found (rather than diffusely calcified foci). On x ray this gives a stippled appearance which we consider rather characteristic for histoplasmosis (2, 17).

Stains for connective tissue and elastic fibers reveal that complete destruction of pulmonary tissue is not invariable. However to a great degree this is dependent on the size of the focus. In the small lesions frequently complete destruction occurs whereas in the larger ones there is only partial and central destruction of the structure. In the healed primary focus the center—which on microscopic examination contains the greatest number of organisms—is generally rock hard and needs considerable more time for decalcification than the comparatively less mineralized periphery.

TABLE I

COMPARISON OF SIZE OF COMPONENTS OF PRIMARY COMPLEXES IN HISTOPLASMOSIS AND TUBERCULOSIS

	Total Number	1-4 mm	5-10 mm	10 mm or more
Primary Focus Lung				
Histoplasmosis	67	31%	6%	3%
Tuberculosis	34	9%	20%	
Lymph Nodes of the Primary Complex				
Histoplasmosis	0		68%	3%
Tuberculosis	4		88%	1%

(Modified from Straut M and Schwarz J (18))

We have repeatedly observed active foci which had inflammatory changes in the periphery including tubercle formation and it appears obvious that this is the mechanism of growth of the lesions. Perifocal edema becomes inflammatory exudate epithelial cells develop nodules form and the tubercle becomes caseated and later incorporated into the main mass of the primary focus. At this time apparently invasion of the lymphatics and blood stream occurs with great regularity. We have shown that calcific lesions in the spleen and to lesser degree in the liver can be found which can be explained only as hematogenous metastases (16). In several cases which we had the good fortune to examine the status of granulomatous response and calcification in the spleen was analogous to that found in the primary pulmonary focus and its satellite lymph nodes. Such active lesions in the spleen per se are microscopically indistinguishable from the caseated pulmonary or lymph node lesion.

The distribution of primary foci in the different lobes is quite congruent with similar findings in tuberculosis and runs closely parallel with the volume of each lobe. The variable figures are too small to make a definite conclusion about the distribution within the lobes but we have the impression that just as in tuberculosis the lower two thirds of all lobes are more frequently the site of primary foci in histoplasmosis.

TABLE II

X RAY MEASUREMENT OF INTRATHORACIC CALCIFIC FOCI

	5 mm or less	6 mm or more	Stippled
Positive histoplasmin negative tuberculosis	1	30	75%
Histoplasma capsulatum demonstrated in focus	1	22	67%

(Modified from Serviansky and Schwarz (17))

HISTOLOGY OF THE HEALED PRIMARY COMPLEX OF HISTOPLASMOSIS

Basically the lesions have to be divided into small and large foci since there is considerable microscopical difference between the two. The small focus of histoplasmosis demonstrates a structure very similar to the one seen in the primary focus of tuberculosis. The central area presents complete destruction but frequently instead of the dense calcification which is found in tuberculosis less heavy mineralization is seen in histoplasmosis. The normal structures are seldom completely destroyed including the elastic fibers. Organisms are found in the center sometimes in very large numbers. This small focus can become arrested and is surrounded by a narrow capsule of connective tissue which often includes a thin rim of bone generally with some bone marrow in it.

The large focus of histoplasmosis is more complex in its structure. In the center one sees the lesions described in the small focus that is more or less complete destruction of tissue including elastic fibers. However going towards the periphery there is a marked increase in connective tissue which is greater than one could expect in the average lung. Apparently this represents the end stage of a pneumonic process in which the exudate has become necrotic and later takes on calcium. This area of scarring which became calcified merges with a broad capsule surrounding the large focus which is fibrotic and frequently hyalinized. Vessels and other structures can be clearly recognized as shadowy remnants in this area. Calcification and ossification of this broad capsule is not unusual and the

TABLE III

DISTRIBUTION OF PRIMARY FOCI OF HISTOPLASMOSIS IN THE DIFFERENT LOBES OF THE LUNGS

<u>RUL</u>	<u>RAM</u>	<u>RLL</u>	<u>LUL</u>	<u>LLL</u>
11	7	13	14	21

(Modified from Strub and Schwanz (18))



Fig 9 485 The bony rim of the burned out primary lesion shows frequently bone marrow production. The periphery of the focus is fibrotic or hyalinized and does not contain organisms (Van Gieson—160x)

bone which has been formed frequently has a double rim with marrow in between. Occasionally the large focus shows complete destruction with a peculiar amorphous chalky material filling it up.

The development of the large focus apparently occurs by incorporation of collateral inflammation. This results in desquamative pneumonia with production of occasional tubercles which then caseate and are themselves incorporated into the main focus. This repetitious process would explain the concentric rings seen in some of the primary lesions. Each ring indicates the outer border of one period of inflammation with capsule formation. The secondary incorporation of perifocal inflammation into the main focus then can form many such laminated rings. Lymphatic spread from the focus obviously occurs and small satellite nodules are found in the tissue surrounding the main lesion. The pleura over the focus is often thickened and completely adherent to the focus but extensive adhesions seldom are observed. Large exudative (pleural) accumulations seem to be unusual in primary histoplasmosis also. The lymph node component of the primary complex is larger in histoplasmosis than in tuberculosis and the calcification has a less homogeneous and more discrete character. The small portions of cal

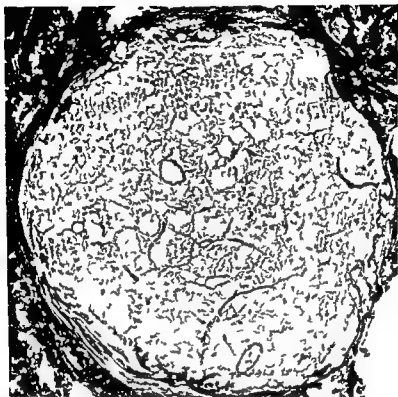


Fig 10 9611 The arrested primary focus is large encapsulated with bone formation in the wall. Incomplete destruction of elastic tissue alveolar walls and vessels demonstrated by special stain. At this time all activity has ceased and the organisms found in the center of the focus cannot be grown in culture (Van Gieson Elastica-90x)

cium deposited are often surrounded by broad fibrous or hyaline bands. There is much less anthracosis and anthracosilicosis in the lymph nodes of histoplasmosis than there is in tuberculosis. A possible explanation is that the primary infection occurs in early age groups and the involved lymph nodes become scarred in histoplasmosis. They consequently are eliminated from drainage and do not become anthracotic whereas at present tuberculous infection tends to occur in an older age group where many of the lymph nodes already have become anthracotic.



Fig 11 Multiple calcified lesions attributed to mitral stenosis. Death three years after chest x ray was taken reveals hundreds of calcified round lesions some with clearly recognizable concentric lamination. Histoplasma capsulatum demonstrated in almost every nodule which was examined. This picture may well represent multiple primary lesions in a case of massive exposure (Courtesy of Dr Ben Felson)

Lymph nodes which often become very much enlarged during primary histoplasmosis naturally produce complications by perforation in the acute and during the chronic stage obstruction—partial or complete—of bronchi is seen by compression from without or by formation of broncholiths after partial irruption of calcified fragments of lymph nodes into the bronchus. We have observed a lethal hemorrhage from the point of ulceration through the bronchial wall. Bronchiectasis, emphysema and atelectasis may result from the compression.

An interesting feature is the presence of so-called histoplasmiomas which as such were recognized first by Puckett (13). This author has expressed the opinion that these lesions possibly represent enlarged primary foci. In favor of such an opinion are several facts. First the distribution is quite similar to the one found by us in the healed primary foci. Secondly several of our primary lesions are large enough to fall into the category of histoplasmiomas and show the same laminated structure which is so characteristic of the histoplasmioma. In addition in many cases where histoplasmiomas are discovered radiologically hilar lymph nodes can be found at surgery or on x-ray. Microscopic examination of primary foci reveals pathology in the same general developmental stage as is found in the so-called histoplasmioma. However this is probably not the only or even most frequent pathogenesis of histoplasmiomas; it is just one of several possibilities.

In tuberculosis—where a considerably larger experience exists—the occasional occurrence of multiple primary foci (19) has been well documented and there can be little doubt that similar happenings will be observed in histoplasmosis. In fact the findings observed in epidemics well may represent such instances of extremely multiple primary foci. Examination of such a case revealed multiple lesions of 3 mm diameter or more, all calcified with the structure consistent with healed primary foci. The rather unique occurrence of massive inhalation of spore containing dust in such individuals could well be consistent with the anatomical finding of numerous (dozens or hundreds) pulmonary lesions in the same state of development. Naturally lesions of equal size could be hematogenous in origin; however the epidemiologic evidence

and clinical picture indicate rather that the fairly large foci are results of inhalation—infection because they become visible a short time after exposure (a few days to a few weeks). They are soft at first and calcify however this may take many years (7). The presence of calcification indicates previous necrosis which is more likely to occur in primary histoplasmosis. This individual healed lesion of epidemic histoplasmosis is indistinguishable from the classical solitary healed primary focus as described above.

RESUMEN

It has been firmly established that the usual route of entrance of *Histoplasma capsulatum* into the body of humans and lower animals is through the respiratory tract. The facts pointing in this direction are the following: (1) epidemiologic evidence especially focal outbreaks (epidemics) which are extensively discussed in the corresponding chapter; (2) the presence of active primary complexes in acute cases of histoplasmosis at autopsy; (3) x-ray evidence of healed calcific pulmonary lesions, the histoplasmic nature of these was verified by Strub (18) who demonstrated the presence of primary complexes with usual demonstration of *Histoplasma* in the arrested lesions in 70 cases out of a total of 105 unselected autopsies in Cincinnati.

Theoretically other portals of entrance are possible; there is no reason why occasional enteric infections or inoculation into the skin or into mucosae communicating with the external environment could not occur. If such infections at all happen, they must be exceptional and should be accepted as primary only if a demonstrable primary chancre with satellite lymph nodes develops (primary complex). This in the case of enteric primary infection would be hard to demonstrate clinically but considerable experience with autopsies in the endemic area failed to reveal any appreciable number of mesenteric calcifications in the absence of thoracic calcifications. A possible primary chancre on the penis has been described (5). The mucosal lesions observed in the nasopharynx and mouth of elderly persons are unquestionable secondary to pulmonary infection which has been demonstrated time and again.

(1) Only simultaneous trauma and introduction of *Histoplasma* could conceivably produce a primary oral lesion.

The primary active lesion becomes necrotic caseated and arrested in the overwhelming majority of cases. The primary focus of histoplasmosis is often large and becomes irregularly calcified (stippled). The primary infection produces with regularity a primary complex consisting of the primary (pulmonary parenchymatous) focus with large satellite lymph nodes which are generally very prominent and may overshadow the volume of the primary pulmonary lesion.

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THE PATHOLOGY OF CIRCUMSCRIBED LOCALIZED LESIONS OF HISTOPLASMOSIS

THOMAS F. LUCKETT

It is possible that as many as one fifth of our population is or has been infected with *Histoplasma capsulatum* and that the number of new cases annually may approach one half million.

The vast majority of these patients have an uneventful uncomplicated and often relatively if not completely asymptomatic course and the disease escapes detection during its active phase. A moderate number of those infected are left with residual intrathoracic lesions in the form of one to many discreet scattered fibrotic or more often calcified areas in one or more lobes that are seen in roentgenograms taken in surveys or for other purposes. One common type of lesion that is frequently a residual of histoplasmosis is seen by x ray as a solitary intrapulmonary nodule and has been referred to by clinician and roentgenologist under a host of different designations. The term histoplasmoma has been used to designate this type of residual lesion (1) because of its similarity to some lesions due to *M. tuberculosis* and *C. immitis* for which the term tuberculoma and coccidioidoma have come into common usage.

The solitary localized lesion shows no significant predilection for any given lobe (2, 3). In the present writer's series of 66 residual parenchymal lesions more than one half of which were of the solitary type, twelve were in the right upper lobe, fourteen in the right middle lobe, eleven in the right lower lobe, twelve in the left upper lobe and seventeen in the left lower lobe. Unquestionably some of these lesions are the parenchymal components of a primary complex.

Schulz (4) has described the primary complex of histoplasmosis in infants and Straub and Schwarz (3) have given a detailed

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Fig 1 Histoplasmosis. Note pleural plaque keys the laminated appearance and central necrotic focus.

It is most important that this characteristic central area be searched for and sectioned for it is here that organisms will be found in the greatest numbers and often they can be found in no other areas (1-3).

Microscopic examination shows little variation from lesion to lesion. Typically the lesion is surrounded by normal lung parenchyma which may or may not show increased thickness of the interlobular collagenous fibers. There may be an occasional epithelioid tubercle in close association with a small vessel but in general the surrounding parenchyma is normal. The lesion is surrounded by a zone of lymphocytes of varying thickness that may be missing

account of the primary complex as seen in their autopsy material. There is evidence however that reinfection type disease may occur (5). It is possible therefore that the circumscribed lesions described may in some instances represent reinfection.

GROSS

The circumscribed localized lesion of histoplasmosis varies from 0.5 to 3.5 cm in diameter, is usually round but may be ovoid. Its consistency varies from stony hard to firm and rubbery. Typically it is located in the immediate subpleural region and is associated with a dense round oval or stellate pleural plaque that is fused to one edge of the lesion. The color of the plaque varies from pinkish gray to yellowish tan and it is sharply demarcated from the adjacent normal pleura. There may be a number of 0.1 to 0.2 cm grayish nodules within the adjacent pleura that represent lymphatic spread.

The cut surface shows the typical lesion to be sharply demarcated from the adjacent normal lung with a smooth even border (Fig. 1). Occasionally there are 0.1 to 0.2 cm pearly gray lesions adjacent and occasionally there are grayish bands representing thickened interlobular septa. In some cases there may be thickened bronchioles and prominent thick walled small vessels but usually the adjacent lung is normal.

The cut surface usually shows the pleural plaque to extend into the main lesion as a wedge simulating a keystone. Anthracotic markings at the edges of this triangular mass are often prominent in the older lesions. Older lesions tend to show prominent grayish white concentric markings creating a laminated appearance with prominent anthracotic deposits between the laminations. Younger lesions have a more homogenous appearance and a more grayish tan to grayish pink color. Without exception multiple thin slices will show a small focus usually central that presents a granular appearance in contrast to the adjacent portions. Usually this focus is softer, sometimes contains frankly granular necrotic material but occasionally is soft and rubbery. It is never liquid nor does the cut surface of the lesion present the ragged moth eaten appearance often seen in similar lesions due to *Coccidioides immitis*.



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over a large segment and usually shows a tendency to form accumulations rarely with germinal centers. The peripheral portion of the lesion consists of dense collagenous tissue with scattered plump fibrocytes. Blood vessels and bronchioles are often in intimate association with this liver but are rarely incorporated within it; are usually pushed aside or distorted by its presence. Central to this capsule there is a thin zone of loosely arranged large epithelioid cells although this zone is sometimes very scant or may even be absent in large segments. Both Langhans and foreign body type giant cells are usually present in this portion but are ordinarily sparsely scattered and they may be entirely absent especially in older lesions. The peripheral eosinophilic infiltration so common in and adjacent to coccidioidomycosis is not present in similar lesions due to *H. capsulatum*.

Central to the zone of epithelioid cells there are broad acellular collagenous fibers making a capsule of varying thickness which enclose the soft granular or rubbery central portion that is readily seen on the cut section. In the peripheral portion of this granular area may be seen concretions of various types including flecks of calcium; indeed the entire area may be heavily calcified. Strub and Schwarz (3) describe transformation to bone with marrow spaces in their autopsy cases. Some cases show retention of the alveolar framework with the proper counterstain or with elastic tissue stains. Calcification is always less prominent in these cases.

The only decisive microscopic characteristic of the localized lesion of histoplasmosis is the presence of *H. capsulatum* and it is in the central necrotic area that by the use of appropriate stains the organisms can be found.

The present writer prefers the periodic acid Schiff stain (PAS) (6) simply because his original work was done with this stain; it is easily prepared, easily utilized, affords good contrast and does not distort the morphology. Two other stains have been used with equal enthusiasm by others and quite possibly offer advantages over the PAS stain (7, 8). One cannot overemphasize the need for special staining procedures, however. *Histoplasma* may readily be seen in ulcerative mucosal lesions, in the Kupfer cells in animals experimentally inoculated, in histiocytes and elsewhere with

routine H & E stains. It has been the experience of the present writer and others that they cannot be seen in the granulomatous lesions stained by routine H & E stain (1-9). They can be made out fairly well in stains for acid fast bacilli that use a methylene blue counterstain but identification is difficult and the procedure is not satisfactory for diagnostic purposes.

With the use of the IAS stain one can often find myriads of organisms singly and in clusters in the soft centers of the localized lesion (Fig. 2). Usually there are great numbers of organisms that have the typical morphology, show little variation in size and shape and they may be present in clusters. Frequently they are in association with many atypical forms that are probably degenerating forms. The identification and diagnosis is based upon identification of the characteristic organisms, however, as it has been the experience of the present writer and others (1-5) that they cannot be cultured from the circumscribed localized lesions. It is therefore assumed that they are non-viable (certainly by present cultural methods).

There are frequent artifacts that are present in and near the soft central focus in the circumscribed lesion. Their number and type probably depend upon the size of the lesion. These are concretions of various types, some having a central nucleus and stellate cytoplasm that takes the red stain of the PAS and looks very much like an organism but not like *H. capsulatum*. Others have a darkly staining outer portion that takes a heavy counterstain and resembles yeast like cells.

The morphology of the organism is now well established and careful study will disclose that the artifacts do not present a serious handicap. With properly stained material, patience and the use of the high dry or oil immersion lens, sufficient numbers of typical organisms can be found so that the diagnosis need never be made on the basis of a few suspicious structures.

The incidence of this type of residual lesion is not known. The incidence of histoplasmosis will vary according to the geographical area from which patients are selected. Straub and Schwarz (3) studied the lungs from 105 consecutive autopsies on patients dying from diseases other than histoplasmosis and were able to demon-



Fig 2 *H. capsulatum* in necrotic focus (PAS stain $\times 1650$ slightly enlarged)

strate histoplasmic lesions in 50% of the 30 Negroes and 73% of the 75 white patients in the series. These writers were primarily interested in a morphological study of the primary complex of histoplasmosis but it is noted that in 41 cases the parenchymal component was larger than 0.5 cm therefore might be classed in the category under consideration here.

In the present writer's series of 66 cases of resected residual lesions more than one half were circumscribed localized lesions (2).

In Davis, Leabody and Katz's series of 215 solitary pulmonary nodules (9) selected by very rigid criteria 82 or 38% were found to be granulomas and they were able to identify *H. capsulatum* in 39 cases or 55% of these. On the basis of their study one can say that about 18% of all solitary pulmonary nodules less than 6.0 cm in diameter are residual foci of histoplasmosis.

Moreover it has been shown by Zimmerman (10) that *H. capsulatum* could be demonstrated in many lesions that had previously been designated as tuberculomas on the basis of their morphological and histological appearance rather than the presence of acid fast bacilli in the lesions. It is therefore evident that the solitary localized lesion of histoplasmosis is a very common lesion indeed.

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THE GENERAL PATHOLOGY OF HISTOPLASMOSIS

HENRY C. SWEANY

It required over forty years for many of the clinical aspects of histoplasmosis to be recognized and because the disease was usually benign with a scarcity of pathological material there was until recently a meagre knowledge of its pathology. Only within the last few years have the more important phases of the pathology been observed and recorded. As the knowledge of the disease unfolds new aspects appear that require special consideration. One of these is the primary complex which resembles the primary infection of tuberculosis. Another is represented by the so called coin lesions. Both of these types are handled in separate chapters. When more is known of the disease it may be found necessary to include these groups with general pathology but for the present it is more convenient to class them separately.

For this chapter we shall consider what is known of the general pathologic features of the disease as it disseminates localizes or heals in the human body.

Darling's first descriptions (1) were those of a dissemination involving almost exclusively the reticulo endothelial cells of the body. There were localizations in the other parenchymatous organs but his description of the fulminating type with the morphology of the parasites may still be considered as classical. Others to follow added little until the more chronic forms of the disease were recognized.

One of the recent studies to emphasize the importance of pathology and attempt to classify the disease according to pathology was that of Schwarz (2) who described three types of disseminated histoplasmosis. One where the parasites were found in histiocytes but where there was no collateral tissue reaction. In a second group there was a marked proliferation of histiocytes in the spleen lymph

nodes and bone marrow but still there was little or no necrosis. This corresponds to the acute disseminated phase. In a third group there was a granulomatosis where there was evidence of a chronic granulomatosis with or without caseation. In fact this group was divided into exudative and proliferative as Aschoff did long ago for tuberculosis. In this last group the lesions may be found in other organs such as the lungs, the liver and adrenals. Nodules of epithelioid cells with the Langhans giant cells were frequently present. In the centers of the nodules caseation existed and contrary to the observations of later workers he claims that polymorphs were common especially in the lungs where necrosis and abscess formation dominates the picture. The caseation is most noticeable in the adrenals. Then there are mixtures of several of these types that may be found.

Puckett (3) paid special attention to the large round lesions which had been called tuberculomata but he must be given credit for finding that out of 22 cases all of them contained *H. capsulatum* as shown with the PAS stain. Of these 22 cases 7 represented a focal encapsulated pneumonitis, 9 were made up of large encapsulated lesions with several daughter colonies or satellites, four had large encapsulated lesions along the lymph nodes, only one was cavity and one involved only the hilar lymph nodes. Zimmerman (4) made similar studies and found 18 of 35 of these round lesions which had been called tuberculomata to be histoplasmosis. The relationship of these special forms of histoplasmosis to primary infection or re-infection is still unsettled. (See also Figs 6-11 Chapter 13.)

One of the most extensive studies in the pathology of histoplasmosis has appeared within the last two or three years under the authorship of Chapman H. Binford (5) of the Armed Forces Institute of Pathology in Washington, D. C. While these cases were not all of the fulminating type, most of them were generalized and the general pathologic findings have been well documented.

Various tissue reactions have been particularly well described and the result has gone a long way to clear up the cytological changes that exist in the disease. Binford has taken up the tissues involved and has to a large extent given the incidence of the various

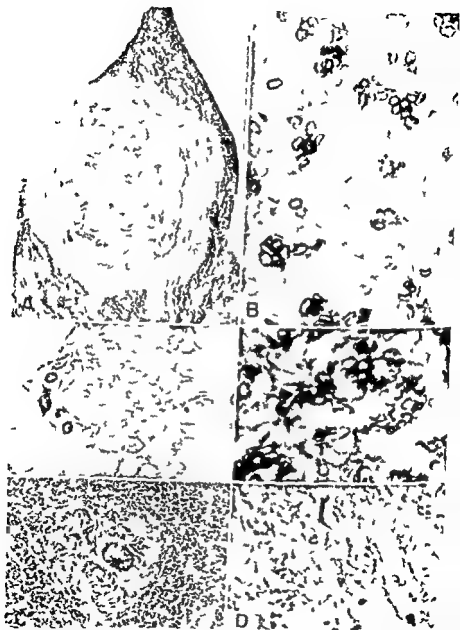


Fig 1 (A) Solitary fibrocystic nodule in lung H & E $\times 10$ AFIP Acc 127350 (B) Numerous *Histoplasma* organisms in necrotic center of nodule shown in (A) Cradley fungus stain $\times 1250$ (C) Spleen AFIP Acc 119989

tissue changes in the series of cases that he has described. He describes the histiocytomycotic lesions in which he points out that *H. capsulatum* has a predilection for the reticulo endothelial system. He states that the yeast form grows prolifically in the cytoplasm of the histiocyte and greatly enlarges the organ involved. In certain lesions there is a caseous necrosis around which are palisaded spindle shaped cells that form the margin of the necrotic areas. In 19 of these 22 cases this histiomycotic response was observed. In 11 the reaction occurred alone and in 8 it was mixed with granulomatous lesions.

A most important observation and one that has been verified by others is that neutrophils, plasma cells and lymphocytes play little or no role in histoplasmosis. Epithelioid cell granulomas were common and in the solitary or multiple pulmonary nodules and in 10 of 22 disseminated cases these epithelioid granulomas with Langhans giant cells were present. Since many of these centers exhibited caseous necrosis it was difficult to distinguish the nodules from tuberculosis. On the other hand the non-caseous epithelioid cell granulomas mainly sarcoidosis had made it difficult to separate from that disease.

In these non-caseous granulomas the fungus cells were seldom seen on the H & F stain but the Gridley stain permitted the author to find a few cells of *H. capsulatum* in the sarcoid type of lesion. In one case a stained specimen of the axillary lymph nodes revealed *H. capsulatum* when the diagnosis had been sarcoidosis.

Another peculiar observation was what was called organizing pneumonitis where there had been a filling of the alveoli with fibrin and a partially organized fibrous plug was present with an involvement of alveolar walls in the process. *H. capsulatum* was

Upper A few Histoplasma organ was in a granuloma. Criller fungus-stain x1950. The spleen weighed 57g Gm and the original diagnosis was military tuberculosis or sarcoidosis. *Lower* Epithelioid cell granuloma histologically compatible with sarcoidosis. H & E x13 (D) Adrenal medulla demonstrating failure of Histoplasma in necrotic tissue to stain with hematoxylin and eosin. AFH Acc 579628. *Upper* Periodic acid-Schiff method light green counter stain x1250. *Lower* Hematoxylin and eosin stain x1250. (Used by permission of the Am J Clin Path the author Chapman H J Inford and the Armed Forces Institute of Pathology Washington D C.)

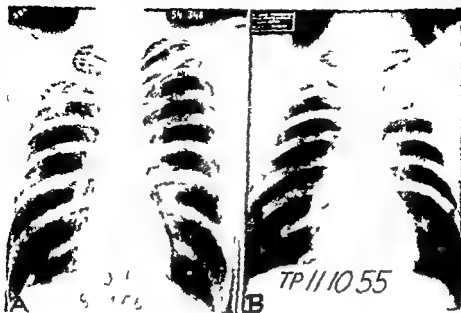


Fig 2 (A) Roentgenogram of D H L21 No 25139 taken on August 11 1935 showing a fibroid and partly infiltrative lesion in right subapex (B) Roentgenogram of J I B23 No 25223 taken on November 10 1935 showing a more inflammatory type of lesion in the left subapex (Used by permission of Dr J A Myers Editor and Diseases of the Chest)

readily demonstrated in such lesions (See Fig 1(D) Chapter 19)

In a subcutaneous lesion Dr Binford found a spindle cell type of reaction that resembled fibrosing granulomatous tissue. The author also mentioned the round lesions that have been so well described by Puckett (See Fig 1(C) Chapter 13)

The author then takes up a few special organs and mentions them because of the unusual features observed in the disease process in these organs. In 21 of the 22 cases the adrenals were involved. The weight of the glands on some of these cases went up to 100 gm. The author mentioned the fact that this is a well known observation and it seems to bear out what others have also found. Not infrequently these cases end up in an Addisonian type of collapse. Although the author does not mention the number it is assumed from the text that all the spleens were involved by picking the reticulo endothelial system with parasites resulting in a tremendous

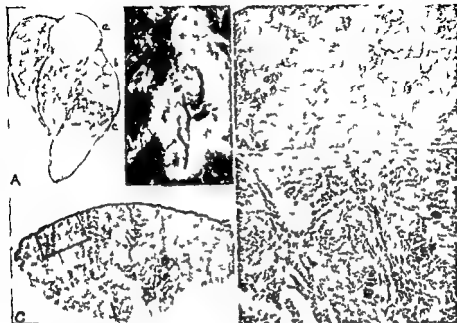


Fig. 3 (A) Upper left A sketch of resected upper lobe of T-1 B23 No. 95993. Figure 9(1) purpurin, 1% show the cystic protrusion at a, the chronic pneumonia at b and the atelectasis at c. (B) Upper center A slightly enlarged caseous focus from the consolidated region below the cystic cavity with early cavity formation. H & E $\times 45$. (C) Lower left A low power photo of section of the chronic pneumonia at b in (A). H & E $\times 45$. (D) Upper right A higher magnification of area marked off in (C). H & E $\times 90$. (E) Lower right A still higher magnification of an area of the chronic pneumonia. Note the imperfect giant cells, fibroblasts, fibrous macrophages and the few lymphocytes with no polymorphs. H & E $\times 140$. (Used by permission of Dr. J. A. Myers, Editor and Diseases of the Chest.)

enlargement of the organ. He did mention that 6 of the 22 had a granulomatous type of lesion resembling Boeck's sarcoid but in which H capsulatum were readily found. Three cases had medullary and papillary necrosis of the kidney as did 3 cases with vegetative endocarditis. In the entire two groups there were bizarre shapes of the parasites and not only were they large in size but there were many mycelia and many cells in which attempts of mycelia

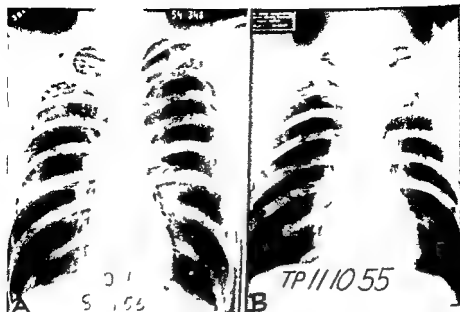


Fig 2 (A) Roentgenogram of D H B21 No 25139 taken on August 11 1955 showing a fibroid and partly infiltrative lesion in right subapex (B) Roentgenogram of T P B23 No 25923 taken on November 10 1955 showing a more inflammatory type of lesion in the left subapex (Used by permission of Dr J A Myers Editor and *Diseases of the Chest*)

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or as it is modified by various factors of resistance of the host or virulence numbers and/or peculiarities of the parasite. For example the round lesions are isolated types that still have not been connected up definitely to the other types of pathology. The question arises whether they are part of an infiltrate or of an expanding process from a small focus, whether they are primary or reinfection lesions or both.

Some of these problems will be discussed in attempt to make the knowledge of the pathology of the disease more complete. Most of the material submitted has been studied at the Missouri State Sanatorium at Mt. Vernon, Missouri (7-8). Since the material at hand was almost exclusively confined to the chest and consisted in resected lesions, there must needs be certain unavoidable omissions.

The first tissue reaction to the parasite of histoplasmosis like that of most toxic substances including tuberculosis has been shown by Procknow to be neutrophilic. This phase apparently soon passes from the tissue reaction for most of the disease process is confined to the reticulo-endothelial apparatus so well shown by Schwarz (2) and Binford (1). Although Schwarz mentions neutrophilic reaction in certain lung lesions, in general polys are rarely present except perhaps in mixed infections. One of the main characteristics of the pathology of histoplasmosis is a general absence of polymorphonuclear leukocytes in the preponderant majority of lesions.

Without attempting to trace the lesions throughout their course, it will be sufficient to describe the types of gross pathology.

First should be considered the earliest recognizable gross lesions, namely the infiltrative focus (See Fig. 2B). It is impossible to foretell the possible outcome of any focus that is found in routine gross section work. Some may be the beginning of a primary lesion that will expand to different sizes, extend to a lymph node and/or go on and become generalized, if not fulminating in character. Some may be reinfection infiltrates. Be that as it may, the focus soon shows necrosis in the center and with a ring of epithelioid cells generally placed in palisading fashion around the circumference as Binford has described. In the caseous center there is not the

formation were just beginning. In 15 cases having brain sections only 2 abscesses of *H. capsulatum* were found.

Although the author was careful to mention the fact that the report was not complete for every organ, it gave a very fair idea of what to expect in the line of cellular pathology in progressive histoplasmosis. Perhaps one of the most obvious missing features was any mention of involvement of the liver. It seems rather strange that of 22 cases having a disseminated disease some would not have involved the liver.

The last of the article takes up the many variations observed in the parasite as it was found in various organs. As mentioned before giant forms, mycelial forms and various other interesting aberrations of the parasite were noted.

Vivian and associates (6) reported on 20 cases from the Mayo Clinic. After listing clinical symptoms of sore throat in 11 cases, chest pain, productive cough, loss of weight, fatigue, fever, chills, sweats and anorexia, they recorded 7 of 9 cases of hepatomegaly and 4 of 7 cases of splenomegaly before necropsy. The pathologic data was based mostly on necropsy findings or very suggestive clinical findings. In 14 cases there was pulmonary involvement; in one the mediastinal nodes were involved with Hodgkin's disease, histoplasmosis or both; the pharynx, liver and spleen were each involved 7 times; the adrenals were involved in 6 cases and in another there was clinical evidence of involvement; the bone marrow was involved in 5 cases and in 3 it was the first tissue to yield positive evidence of disease.

From the preceding reports we can see that there are many clear cut types of cellular pathology typical of histoplasmosis with only sketchy accounts of the gross lesions, especially in a great number of the organs of the body. It is clear, however, that there are certain disconnected aspects of the gross pathology of the disease. Even in the microscopic lesions there are several well described types in which the findings are definite and the descriptions are precise but the relationships to other types of pathology are probably not definitely established. As stated in the chapter on pathogenesis, there are also gaps in the pathogenicity of the disease or the disease in motion, as it progresses from one stage to another.



Fig 1 (A) A low power view (10x) of the fibroid cavity shown in Figure 2 (A) H & E x6 (B) A higher magnification of wall of cavity marked off in (A) H & E x36 (C) A still higher magnification of wall of cavity of (A) Note palisade arrangement of cells H & E x160 (D) An area of chronic pneumonia in lung tissue showing alveoli packed with organizing fibrinous exudate with alveolar cells and macrophages H & E x192 (Used by permission of Dr J A Myers Editor and Diseases of the Chest)

of the lesion. Every lesion of this nature must be looked upon as one stage of evolution of the infection either spreading or static with probable termination in an excystation.

The parasites in such a lesion are usually present but the location and numbers are variable. Some lesions may reveal typical yeast bodies approximately one to two per high power microscopic field. In other lesions the yeast may be difficult to find. Sometimes

finely mixed debris of a tubercle with pyknotic nuclei but it is more of a coarse necrosis of tissue cells. This is then what might be considered the elementary gross unit of the lesion of histoplasmosis. The size may vary from a few millimeters to several centimeters depending on such factors as number and virulence of the parasites and the resistance of the host. Although it is possible that these foci may localize any place in the lungs the common form encountered is found in the upper parts of the lungs just as is tuberculosis. The question of the primary nature of the process cannot be determined without a corresponding conversion of the histoplasmin skin reaction. At the present time it is very difficult to make this observation. Of course an involvement of the lymph nodes followed by generalization may be considered as highly suggestive of primary infection but there is no reason now known why a reinfection cannot become generalized also by way of the lymphatics. There is one condition that is frequently present more than in tuberculosis and that is that uninfected adults may come in from an area free of histoplasmosis and be infected for the first time. This situation practically never holds for tuberculosis because there are very few places on the earth where a considerable amount of tuberculous infection does not exist and in some places it is almost universal. For the present this problem with its bearing on the pathology must be held in abeyance.

Another unknown factor is the relationship of the first focus to the slow growing or stationary round lesions described by Puckett. Perhaps the resistance or lack of it with the virulence of the parasite may enter into the course of process.

It seems clear that the acute massive infiltrative lesion of 5 to 10 cm size should not be classed with the fibroplastic round lesions. They are entirely distinct. Most of them show as soft caseous masses. Perhaps most of them shell out into cavities which have so many varied characteristics as the process progresses. The type described by Puckett are mostly balls of fibrous tissue with varying sizes of caseous foci. Usually the caseous foci are scarce.

The large infiltrate is composed of a coarse granular necrotic type of caseation with or without a fibrotic capsule depending perhaps on the age of the process or the progressive or stationary nature

they are located in some densely caseous center. In others they may be nests of two to four small parasites in a matrix with granules of an undetermined nature throughout. Some granules may appear in the ghosts of old yeast bodies. In general this is the acute infiltrative lesion as distinct from the chronic round lesion in which the parasites are sometimes difficult to find. The relationship of these two types of lesions is not known at the present time.

The number of calcific lesions which develop into healing and encapsulated foci is another unknown but in the chapter on the primary lesion by Schwartz these lesions are well shown and perhaps all primary foci go through the stages of encapsulation, calcification and ossification as in tuberculosis. The lesion that progresses through ulceration may show a stellate crevice that finally penetrates a bronchus following which the caseous debris excavates leaving first a cavity with an uneven or irregular wall. There is no pyogenic membrane of polymorphs and monocytes as in tuberculosis but a barren wall of coarse caseous debris largely of destroyed tissue cells. Slight calcification may be present. The fibrotic wall may be of a varied thickness depending on the age and chronicity of the process and the thickness of the wall may be from a few millimeters to many centimeters depending on the size of the caseous focus and age of the process.

The wall of the cavity is usually made up of a dense hyalinized fibrous tissue with a periphery of macrophages in which no parasites may be seen. From the inner wall there is a sloughing debris of coarse caseous material that gradually is transformed into a layer of fibroblasts and fibrous tissue that gradually develops a slick surface smooth as a mucous membrane. Finally epithelization gradually takes place on this membrane. This is a characteristic that sets most cavity lesions of histoplasmosis apart from those of tuberculosis that is tuberculosis where no drug treatment has been given. The untreated tuberculosis almost always has a pyogenic membrane even in the late stages of healing. In advanced disease of histoplasmosis there are recent infiltrates beneath the cavities

96598. A high power in cross. pic view of center of caseous mass showing large yeast bodies about 3 to 5 microns in diameter. B. M. S. $\times 1066$ (B and C) (Lower left and right). Another view showing birefringence in (C).



Fig. 3 (The lesion from which this specimen was taken is shown in the x-ray in Chapter 22 Figures 1 and 2 by Dr. John Folk.) (A) (Upper) B 80 I B





Fig 6 (A) Roentgenogram of S. R. P10 23637 taken on August 21 1933. Note destroyed right upper lobe. (B) Sagittal section of upper lobe of lung removed on September 20 1933 showing extremely thick walled cavities with no pyogenic membrane. (Used by permission of Dr J. A. Myers Editor and *Diseases of the Chest*)

with some cavities showing clearing others partially cleared and still others near the apex of the lung which are completely cystic in nature.

Sometimes the disease may become rapidly progressive and the cavity enlarged. One example in our work was in a man who was reported to be an alcoholic where the lesion that was followed for over ten years as a moderately advanced and healing type of tuberculous process suddenly began to spread and the process did not stop until most of the parenchyma of the lung had all

Fig 7 (A) Sections a b c and d made from encapsulated lesions removed and stained in 1936. H & E $\times 45$. (P) Microscopic photograph of yeast bodies found in the c lesion of (A). C M II stain $\times 1066$. (Used by permission of Dr J. A. Myers Editor and *Diseases of the Chest*)



Fig 2 (A) A low power view of dense massified parenchymal lesion shown in Figure 8(A). There was also a lymph node lesion left behind perhaps the lymph node component of an old primary. Small dots encircle several areas in which yeast bodies are found. H & E $\times 45$. (B) An enlarged area outlined in black ink. Note the bone and marrow. (C) Microscopic view of yeast bodies found in area outlined by dots in (A). GMS stain $\times 1066$. (D) Another field outlined by the dots in (A). GMS stain $\times 1066$. (Used by permission of Dr J. A. Myers Editor and Diseases of the Chest)

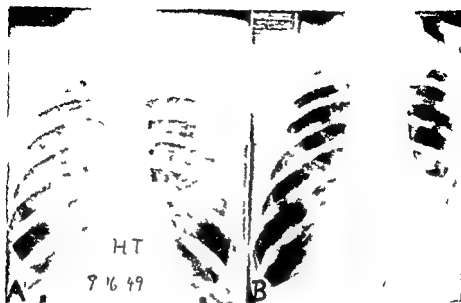


Fig 8 (A) Roentgenogram of H T B28 No 26 098 taken on September 16 1919 showing a fibroid apical lesion in the left apex and a few nodules below. It was called a moderately advanced tuberculosis with an apical cavity (B) Same case taken on August 31 1936 showing what was thought to be a pneumothorax because of the fibrin body showing. Instead it was found to be a completely destroyed lung (Used by permission of Dr J A Myers Editor and Diseases of the Chest)

excavated all the way to the diaphragm leaving a thickened pleura and a mass around the hilum made up of large bronchi and blood vessels. About a dozen of these bronchi opened out into the cavity. A few parasites were found in the cavity wall and one culture of the sputum was positive enough to make a diagnosis. The old calcified foci which were present revealed many pockets of typically appearing yeast bodies within the center of the lesion. These foci were not only calcified but they showed many rings of bone indicating that the process was quite old. The relationship of these encapsulated lesions of the longstanding disease is a problem which will have to be worked out in the future for there is no answer to it now. On the other extreme, the longstanding cavity lesion may progress to involve a whole lobe or a whole lung with a piling up of fibrous

with Langhans giant cells of varying sizes. This type of tissue extended for about 3 cm around the wall of the cavity. Methenamine silver stains did not reveal any parasites in this tissue. Around the borders of the pneumonic area were a scattering of macrophages but no parasites were found in them either. See Fig 3c d e. Pinkerton and Iverson (9) have described this type of lesion.

A few small foci of chronic pneumonia as described by Binford were found but not like his results we were unable to find parasites.

There was another unusual case where a large bronchopulmonary node near the hilum was enlarged tremendously but did not result in bronchiectasis. There was an invasion of the bronchial mucosa with a chronic granulomatous process but no obstruction of the bronchi resulted. At least there was no obvious bronchiectasis and no purulent involvement of the bronchi after the lung had been removed. At the time of operation the disease was considered as most likely cancer. The pathological diagnosis was tuberculoma. Later the parasites of many sizes were found in the large caseous centers which were surrounded by dense bands of fibrous tissue. No other lesions were found either in the lungs or in the other lymph nodes. Many of the parasites in this lesion of many years duration were found in small nests in which some of the parasites measured no more than a micron in diameter.

The pleura is practically always involved in the chronic pulmonary forms of the disease. In two cases parasites were found in the pleural fluid. In general the pleura resembles that found in tuberculosis with a thick roughened surface above superficial cavities and nearly always adherent to the parietal wall. As pointed out by Puckett the round lesions frequently have a heavy smooth button like callous in the pleura which extends down into the fibrotic and caseous lesion. Frequently primary tubercles produce a similar effect.

No serious attempt has been made or in fact can be made on the limited material at hand to determine the nature of mixed pathology of histoplasmosis and tuberculosis sarcoidosis cancer lymphomas etc. Suffice it to say that the few specimens of tuberculosis seemed to present more polymorphonuclear leukocytes than

tissue to great thickness : This same result occurs on rare occasions in tuberculosis. It takes place in a person who has enough resistance to cause a benign course of the disease yet not enough to bring about complete healing. There is one very good example of this which are shown in the illustrations.

In the lymph nodes there is seen to be similar variation of lesions to those found in the lungs although up to this time there have been no ruptures of lymph nodes into the bronchi which we have observed or which have been reported in the literature. As mentioned in the chapter on pathogenesis the lymph nodes are frequently enlarged to great size causing pressures that result in infarctosis by pressure on the vena cava and bronchiectasis by pressure on the bronchi. We have to date seen five cases where the pressure on bronchi resulted in bronchiectasis. The resulting disease in no case was due to the active histoplasmosis but was a result of pressure leading to a secondary infection. In one case the parasites were grown from a lesion of only a few years duration but all the others were from an old process where the parasites were found only by staining an old calcified lymph node with an entirely nonspecific disease in the bronchi. In the case in which the cultures of *H. capsulatum* were grown it is doubtful if the parasites played any role in the bronchiectasis because only a few parasites were found in the walls of the bronchi but large masses of them were found in the encapsulated and caseous foci. (See Fig 6 also Chapter 22.)

The granulomatous and chronic pneumonic types of disease are a part of the pathology of histoplasmosis just as is caseation, cavitation and calcifications. The reasons for the fibrotic changes instead of caseous are not yet evident but there are some observations that might be mentioned as in the illustration where there was a resolving cavity and immediately beneath the cavity was a consolidated mass that appeared like caseous pneumonia of tuberculosis. In fact the first time this type of lesion appeared it was called tuberculosis until proven otherwise. When a section was made through it however the knife met resistance and the surface left was smooth and rigid. On microscopic study there was a network of fibroblasts, fibrous tissue, epithelioid granulomatous nodules

ROENTGENOGRAPHIC ASPECTS OF HISTOPLASMOSIS

FRIDERIC N. SILVERMAN

Information derived from radiologic examinations and related to the problem of histoplasmosis was restricted initially to epidemiologic studies of histoplasmin sensitivity and the incidence of intrathoracic calcification—calcification which in general had little to differentiate it from that of tuberculosis. The value of these studies lay largely in supporting and emphasizing the fact that all that calcifies is not tuberculosis. Subsequently as active proved cases began to be recognized roentgenographic patterns of acute subacute and ultimately chronic disease appeared in the literature. These roentgenographic patterns were primarily pulmonary. With increasing interest in the disease the clinical and pathological spectrum of the disease became clarified, critical comparison of shadows and substance could be made and the details of the pulmonary lesions and the significance of the extrapulmonary lesions became clear.

This section will review the roentgen manifestations of histoplasmosis in this historical perspective and sequence. Wherever possible the examples will be from proved cases; in other instances the criteria for the diagnosis are such as would be acceptable to most students of the subject. There will be no attempt to discuss differential diagnosis.

For purposes of this presentation the classification to be developed will be primarily morphologic and can be outlined as follows:

- I Intrathoracic calcification
 - A Primary complex
 - B Separate components of primary complex
 - C Several foci with nodes
 - D Disseminated calcification

were usually found in histoplasmosis alone. Sarcoidosis, silicosis, berylliosis and other granulomatous conditions are so rarely found with histoplasmosis that more material must be studied before any thing can be said about the altered pathology.

In summary it can be stated that much has been learned about the cellular and gross pathology of histoplasmosis but much is yet to be learned. There is a rather constant pattern which the disease manifests in both its progressive type as well as in its varying stages of chronicity. There is nothing in either of these fields however that can be considered diagnostic. In fact the pathology simulates tuberculosis so closely that it is very easy to mistake the two and in times past most of the round lesions that have been removed have been called tuberculomas. The disease also simulates sarcoidosis at times so that they cannot be separated without a search for the parasite.

In the last analysis therefore it is mandatory to find the parasites before a diagnosis can be made. Fortunately in the majority of active cases cultures of the parasite may be grown and in active and particularly caseous and calcified lesions the methenamine silver stain when properly applied will identify the parasites in over 80% of the cases.

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9. Pinkerton H and Iverson L. Histoplasmosis. Three fatal cases with disseminated sarcoid like lesions. *JAMA Arch Int Med* 90: 456, 1957.

between the incidence of intrathoracic calcification and the incidence of positive skin sensitivity to histoplasmin has been alluded to in the section on epidemiology. Notwithstanding some of the identifying features which will be discussed in subsequent paragraphs it is necessary to emphasize the fact that intrathoracic calcification is not specific and that skin sensitivity tests are the first step in the evaluation of the nature and significance of intrathoracic calcification demonstrated in a roentgenogram of the chest.

The Calcified Primary Complex

As in pulmonary tuberculosis histoplasmosis when calcified commonly presents as a primary complex. One finds a calcified focus in the parenchyma of the lung, which by appropriate tangential projection can be shown to occupy the subpleural position indicated in the section on pathology. More frequently the primary calcified focus is found in the routine frontal projection of the chest in the peripheral portions of the lung (Fig. 1). Careful anatomical studies of the type undertaken in tuberculosis by Kuess (1), Ghon and Kuchich (2) and others (3) have not been undertaken in histoplasmosis apart from the relatively small series described by Straub and Schwarz (4) but there is no reason to believe that the distribution of primary foci should be any different. The primary focus should have a chance distribution throughout the lung with some slight tendency to be located in the lower two thirds of the lobes rather than in the apical portions primarily on the basis of volume of lung available. This is no place to enter into the arguments on the distribution of primary lesions from the practical standpoint the location of the primary focus is no different from that in primary tuberculosis and has no specific diagnostic significance. The size of the primary focus however may have diagnostic information not inherent in the location. Anatomical studies by Straub and Schwarz (4) and radiologic studies by Servinsky and Schwarz (5) have suggested that a parenchymal calcifying focus more than 5 mm in diameter is found appreciably more frequently in association with a positive histoplasmin skin test and in areas where histoplasmosis is endemic than in association with a positive tuberculin test or in areas where histoplasmosis is not endemic.

- II Intrathoracic soft shadows
 - A Infiltrate with hilar nodes
 - B Segmental or lobar consolidation
 - C Lymphadenomegaly
 - D Disseminated soft shadows
 - E Coin lesions—histoplasmosis
 - F Pleural reactions
- III Pulmonary fibrocuticular disease
- IV Extrapulmonary foci
 - A Cervical nodes
 - B Axillary nodes
 - C Splenic calcification
 - D Bone
 - E Other organs
- V Hepatosplenomegaly with normal chest
- VI Normal chest with positive blood and/or bone marrow culture

The subsequent discussion will follow in this sequence.

INTRATHORACIC CALCIFICATION

Intrathoracic calcification has long been the hallmark of pulmonary tuberculosis. So well implanted is the concept that intrathoracic calcification is *prima facie* evidence of pulmonary tuberculosis that even today consideration of other diseases generally comes at best as a second choice. Nevertheless in certain areas of the country other conditions so frequently exceed tuberculosis as a cause for intrathoracic calcification that its roentgenographic observation should serve merely as an indication that skin sensitivity tests are in order if not to identify the nature of the calcification at least to exclude some of the possibilities particularly pulmonary tuberculosis. In the Ohio and Mississippi River basins histoplasmosis is so much more frequently a cause of intrathoracic calcification than tuberculosis that on statistical grounds alone a physician may earn the reputation of being a diagnostician by favoring the diagnosis of mycologic disease rather than mycobacterial disease in every instance. The close correlation



Fig 11 Calcified primary complex with mulberry type of calcification in apical focus. Note intrapulmonary node calcification between primary focus and hilar node. Young adult. Histoplasmin positive, tuberculin negative. (Courtesy Am J Roentgenol Rad Therapy & Nuclear Med 1950)

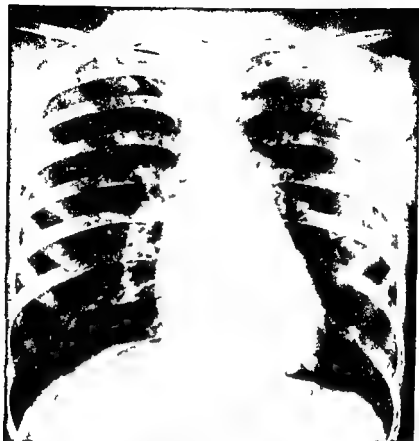


Fig 1 Classical calcified primary complex in proved histoplasmosis. Calcified node removed at operation for closure of patent ductus arteriosus and H capsulatum found within it (Courtesy *Am J Med* 1955)

The roentgen appearance of the calcification has been suggested (6) as having etiologic significance. Supplied calcification of the mulberry type (Fig 2) and focal calcification with a soft halo around it (Fig 5-3 and 4) have been said to indicate histoplasmosis more frequently than other diseases. Both types of calcification however are found in other diseases and in any given case statistical probabilities serve only to maintain a high index of suspicion. In an area endemic for histoplasmosis any type of calcification is more likely to be associated with a positive histoplasmin skin test than

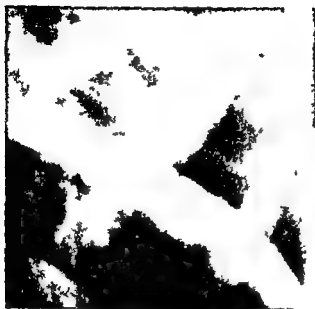


Fig. 31 Enlargement of area in invert

frequently with positive histoplasmin skin tests than tuberculin tests and to occur with greater frequency in the endemic area for histoplasmosis than in non endemic areas. This radiologic study supported the morphologic investigations of Strub and Schwarz (4). The observation of the large size of the cavitic lesions and the extensive distribution had been remarked by Long and Stearns in 1913 (7) prior to my knowledge of the relationship to histoplasmosis. The large size was also a feature in the early report by Furcolow (6) in which the progression of pulmonary infiltrates to calcification was carefully documented.

Calcifications along the lymphatic drainage from the primary focus to the hilum occur with recognizable frequency (Fig. 2) but provide no specific diagnostic information. A pleural reaction is seldom recognized in primary histoplasmosis even less so than in primary tuberculosis where its frequency is such as to properly permit its inclusion among the components of the primary complex. In one known instance *H. capsulatum* could be found on direct



Fig 3A Hilar focus. Calcific shadow with "soft density surrounding it.
Histoplasmin positive, tuberculin negative

with a positive tuberculin skin test. In general, it is wise to consider intrathoracic calcification merely as an expression of disease capable of causing necrosis of tissue but permitting survival and not indicative of any specific disease in itself.

Calcification in the hilar lymph nodes draining the parenchymal focus occurs as in tuberculosis (Figs 1 and 2). Here again, the size of the lesion may have more diagnostic significance in identifying a given shadow as histoplasmosis than its morphology or the distribution of calcification. Servinsky and Schwarz (5) found large lesions (more than 6 mm in diameter) to be associated more

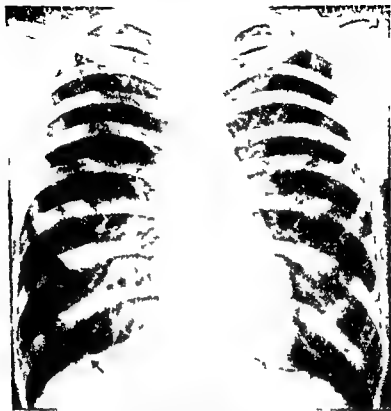


Fig 5A Effect of technical factors on nonvisualization of components of primary complex: Primary focus (arrow) clearly seen in LA projection but cardiac density and spine density obliterate calcification in regional lymph nodes (c final) draining this area

nation (Fig 5) Failure to demonstrate a parenchymal lesion when a hilar calcification is present may also have technical factors at fault not uncommonly in a routine PA projection what appears to be a hilar focus actually represents a parenchymal focus anteriorly or posteriorly subpleural in the mesial portion of the lung Lateral projections clearly demonstrate the position of this shadow (Fig 6) Other factors which have to do with demonstration of calcium shadows must also be kept in mind these include the size and density of the calcifying focus (Fig 7) Moreover calcium may



Fig 4 Halo focus in apical region

smeared of cellular components of a massive pleural effusion (8). Recently a positive culture from pleural fluid was obtained in a fatal case (9).

Separate Components of the Primary Complex

In not every instance of calcifying histoplasmosis is the full complement of calcified shadows recognized. Occasionally one may find only a parenchymal lesion; at other times only a lesion in the hilum is recognized. Failure to identify a hilar lesion may be related to the fact that calcification did not occur in the hilum or more frequently that the technical factors in demonstrating the calcification preclude visualization under standard conditions of examination. It is quite probable that the cranial lymph nodes are involved with as great if not greater frequency than are the peribronchial nodes; however, because of their position behind the heart and superimposed on the bony structure of the vertebral column, calcification within them may be missed in routine exami-



Fig 6A Technical factors in demonstration of components of calcifying histoplasmosis complex. Classic calcifying complex in frontal projection

Several Foci with Nodes

As in tuberculosis there may occur several foci of calcification with hilar lymph nodes more marked on or exclusively restricted to one side or the other. The multiple parenchymal foci (not disseminated calcification) probably represent several primary foci in different stages of evolution at the time that allergy and necrosis of tissue took place. This interpretation is supported by the fact that when three or four primary foci are present in the lung they are appreciably larger than the disseminated fine calcifications noted in the more common form of the disease.

Disseminated Calcification

Statistically this variety of intrathoracic calcification (9) is most likely to represent histoplasmosis infection; this has been amply proved by the epidemiologic studies of Furcolow *et al* (12)



Fig 5B Effect of technical factors on non visualization of components of primary complex. Oblique films shows primary focus but also shows cluster of large calcifying carinal nodes. Note bifurcation of trachea outlined by air in lumen above nodes

be lost from a lesion either by resorption as in tuberculosis (11) or by expectoration as a broncholith (10) (Fig 8). A fairly large lesion in infancy may contract and scar down to the point of roentgen invisibility in childhood or later. Other possibilities for the absence of a parenchymal lesion would include an endobronchial primary focus as well as a primary lesion healing without calcification.



Fig. 1A Technical factors in demonstration of histoplasmosal lesion. Frontal projection: rounded lesion in base of right lung almost completely obscured by diaphragm.

shadow represents multiple foci of pneumonitis resulting from the inhalation of a large number of organisms. The analogy with hematogenous disseminated tuberculosis however is so great that one may equally strongly support the contention that the disseminated lesions represent hematogenous dissemination. The invasion of the blood stream is well known in the disease and may occur in the absence of significant clinical symptoms. Although in epidemics the one possible exposure to the organism is commonly known, in non epidemic cases it is quite probable that recurrent multiple exposures to the organism take place particularly with individuals living within the endemic area or in environments



Fig 6P Technical factors in demonstration of components of calcifying histoplasmosal complex. Same patient lateral projection: Two calcifying parenchymal foci without recognizable hilar node calcification

With the extensive application of antituberculous drugs the initial consideration that disseminated calcification can result from healed miliary tuberculosis may now become a reality and the security of etiologic diagnosis may thereby suffer. Disseminated calcification not infrequently follows widespread snow storm lesions during the acute phase of the disease (Fig 10). Occasionally it appears without obvious antecedent illness. Lehn and his associates (19) have suggested that the pattern of disseminated snow storm



Fig. 1C. Technical factors in demonstration of histoplasmosis lesion. Appropriate right anterior oblique projection shows rounded lesion clearly.

spores of *Histoplasma capsulatum*. Their pattern is extremely variable but the following forms occur with sufficient frequency to permit a suggestion of histoplasmosis by the radiologist when the diagnosis is not suspected by the clinician. Calcification of the types described above takes place in a high percentage of these soft lesions as healing progresses (see Fig. 10); it may make its appearance as short as 5 months after the clinical onset or as long as six years after (13, 14). Turcotte (6) states that in the course of following several hundred children with pulmonary infiltrates and positive histoplasmin sensitivity there was little or no tendency for new lesions to appear or for individual lesions to progress.



Fig 7B Technical factors in demonstration of histoplasmal lesion. Lateral projection; superimposition of lesion on spine also tends to obscure it

heavily contaminated by *Histoplasma capsulatum*. The radiographic manifestations therefore may represent the results of repeated exposures or of a subclinical disease aggravated by superimposed overwhelming exposure.

INTRATHORACIC SOFT SHADOWS

These lesions occur as incidental observations or in association with clinical signs and symptoms commonly following known exposure in environments known to contain large numbers of



Fig 9 Disseminated calcification. Strongest radiographic evidence of previous histoplasmosis. (Courtesy Am J Roentgenol Rad Therapy & Nuclear Med 1960)

Infiltrate with Hilar Nodes

The radiologic picture of acute pulmonary consolidation can occur with histoplasmosis. Commonly the infiltrate is a relatively soft ill defined area, seldom more than 2-3 cm in diameter which because of the hilar lymphadenomegaly bears a very close resemblance to primary pulmonary tuberculosis (Fig 11). This was one of the first forms of the disease proved to result from infection with *Histoplasma capsulatum*. Not all of these instances heal by calcification, but there is a tendency for the infiltrate and the prominent nodes to persist for a longer period of time than in the case of acute



Fig 8A Loss of calcium shadows in chest film due to expectoration of broncholiths (August 1956) (Courtesy *Im Rev Tuberc* 1957)

Fig 8B Loss of calcium shadows in chest film due to expectoration of broncholiths (October 1956 after expectoration of broncholiths) Compare areas above right hilum (Courtesy *Im Rev Tuberc* 1957)



Fig 9 Disseminated calcification. Sixteen radiographic evidence of previous histoplasmosis. (Courtesy *Am J Roentgenol Rad Therap & Nuclear Med* 1956)

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Fig 8A Loss of calcium shadows in chest film due to expectoration of broncholiths August 1956 (Courtesy *Am J et Tuberc* 1957)

Fig 8B Loss of calcium shadows in chest film due to expectoration of broncholiths October 1956 after expectoration of broncholiths. Compare areas above right hilum (Courtesy *Am J et Tuberc* 1957)



Fig 9 Disseminated calcification—Strongest radiographic evidence of previous histoplasmosis. (Courtesy Am J Roentgenol Rad Therapy & Nuclear Med 1959)

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Fig 10A Serial films illustrating development of disseminated calcification November 1917. Clinically atypical pneumonia—disseminated soft shadows (Courtesy Am J Roentgenol Rad Therapy & Nuclear Med 1950)

pyogenic pulmonary infection. Occasionally the clinical signs may antedate positive roentgen signs by weeks to months. In a very broad sense the radiologic manifestations are similar to atypical pneumonia. The involvement is usually unilateral and when resolution of the parenchymal focus occurs there may be concurrent diminution of the hilar adenopathy.

Segmental and Lobar Consolidation

When the lymph nodes are so placed as to be able to compress a bronchus or when endobronchial reaction is of a sufficient magnitude to permit obstruction of the lumen, segmental or lobar consolidation can occur and is radiologically indistinguishable from



Fig. 10B. Serial films illustrating development of disseminated calcification. October 1950. Earliest calcification seen in annual follow up film. (Courtesy Am. J. Roentgenol. Rad. Therapy & Nuclear Med. 1950)

that produced by any other cause (Fig. 12). Lobar consolidation is less common than is segmental disease. As a general rule, with coughing up of secretions or with subsidence of the acute reaction in the bronchial tree, the apparent consolidation, which constitutes in large measure atelectasis, tends to clear. It is quite probable that

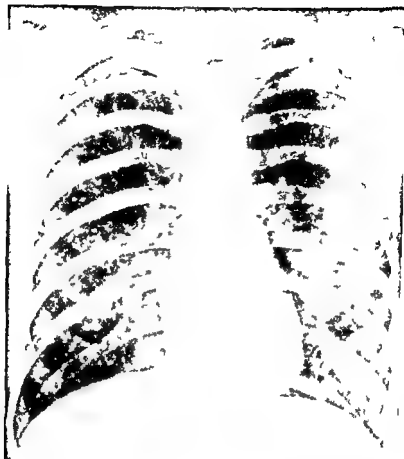


Fig 10C Serial films illustrating development of disseminated calcification February 1958 Well-developed disseminated calcification

this reaction is comparable to that of epituberculosis in primary tuberculous infection. Bronchiectasis following bronchial obstruction by histoplasmosal lymph nodes has been reported (27) but from analogy with the conditions obtaining in tuberculosis one may suspect that the bronchiectasis unless secondarily infected is very likely reversible. However in an endemic area non reversible bronchiectasis may well have had its origin in histoplasmosis.



Fig. 11 Infiltrate with hilar nodes. Note fine interlobar pleural reaction.

Lymphadenomegaly

Enlargement of hilar lymph nodes may be the only radiographic manifestation of pulmonary histoplasmosis (Fig. 13). This may be spurious if the primary lesion is hidden in the shadow of the lymph nodes and enlarged hilum or if the primary focus should happen to be endobronchial so that the drainage into the lymph nodes is unassociated with a parenchymal lesion. The node shadows tend to be quite large, persist for months and may produce as mentioned above signs of complete or incomplete obstruction. With incomplete obstruction emphysematous changes in the portion of lung supplied by the involved bronchus may be anticipated; with complete obstruction atelectasis occurs (Fig. 14). Even large lymph nodes may disappear gradually without demonstrating calcification but in general prominent lymph nodes in the hilums can be

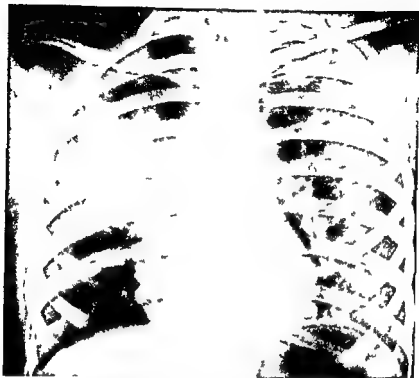


Fig 12A Segmental consolidation with slow resolution January 1957. Acute febrile illness with respiratory symptoms

expected to result in hilar calcification. According to Servinsky and Schwarz (5) Furcolow (6) and others this calcification is frequently stippled (Fig 15)

Disseminated Soft Shadows

These are the so-called "snow storm" shadows which can represent either hematogenous dissemination or the results of dissemination through the bronchial tree of multiple infecting agents (11). The shadows usually tend to be somewhat larger than those seen in hematogenous disseminated tuberculosis and one is frequently surprised by the extensive nature of the shadows radiographically and the absence of clinical signs and symptoms. The fine reticulated pattern in the group of cases reported initially by Sabin (15) and Nelson *et al* (16) tends to be somewhat unusual inasmuch as



Fig. 12B. Segmental consolidation with slow resolution. August 1957. Clinically greatly improved. Note appearance of rounded node above right hilum. We would anticipate a large (more than 1 cm) calcification to develop here.

calcification has not developed in any of the individuals followed.

The recent suggestion by Finmons (17) that this epidemic may have been caused by cryptococcosis rather than histoplasmosis, if it can be proved, may tend to remove this fine reticulated pattern from the group known to be associated with histoplasmosis. The disseminated soft densities are too numerous to count (Fig. 16). They vary between 1.5 mm in size; occasionally there is superimposed localized infiltrate and hilar lymphadenomegaly is commonly recognized. The development of calcification is very common in the multiple fine nodular variety; it may not be clearly identified for several years and resolution of the surrounding soft density is exceedingly slow. Increasing calcification can be observed for years after symptoms have completely disappeared (see Fig. 10).



Fig 13 Enlargement of lymph nodes only. Two nodes or groups of nodes are recognized—one above the right hilum and the other below the left hilum. A separate parenchymal lesion could not be identified even on lateral projections.

Coin Lesions—Histoplasmosis

Within the past ten years the introduction of mass chest surveys has brought forth a considerable interest in the nature of so called coin lesions found in usually asymptomatic individuals (see Fig. 7). As a general rule many of these have been considered to represent neoplasm and must be considered neoplasm in the appropriate age group. Radiologists have attempted to differentiate neoplastic lesions from inflammatory lesions by the presence of calcium within the inflammatory group. Sometimes calcification can be demonstrated only by tomography (Fig. 17). To Puckett (18) belongs the credit for pointing out that many of these coin

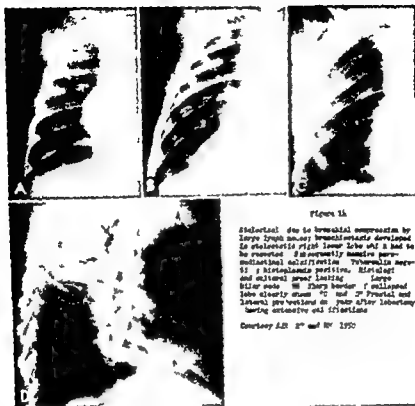


Figure 14

Stenosis due to bronchial compression by large lymph nodes; bronchiectasis developed in atelectatic right lower lobe and it had to be resected. Subsequently massive peribronchovascular calcification. Tuberculin negative; histoplasma positive. Histology and culture were lacking. Large hilar nodes. The border of collapsed lobe clearly shown. C and D: Frontal and lateral projections of post-operative lobectomy showing extensive calcification.

Courtesy J.D. 2nd and 3rd 1950

Fig 14

lesions actually represent histoplasmosis inflammatory tumor masses comparable to the tuberculomas which have been known for many years.

The presence of a small daughter lesion around the primary focus has been a very helpful point radiologically in identifying inflammatory changes as distinct from neoplastic ones. Moreover this characteristic appears to be more frequent in histoplasmosis than in tuberculosis. Unfortunately the daughter lesions are recognized histologically more easily than radiographically because of technical factors. By the same token calcification may be present histologically but be radiologically invisible. The fact that these lesions do not increase in size as opposed to neoplastic lesions is a



Fig 15 Suppled calcification in mediastinal lymph node. Close up of area of primary complex shown in Figure 1. The irregularity of the calcification and its size are clearly demonstrated.

helpful differential point if serial films are available. Occasionally with an increase in the density of the lesion possibly due to deposition of calcium which is not yet clearly definable roentgenographically there is a spurious enlargement of the lesion. The value of the histoplasmin and tuberculin skin tests in the elucidation of the nature of these lesions is obvious. Nevertheless assurance that a given visible shadow is responsible for a positive cutaneous reaction can not be given unequivocally and careful evaluation is indicated in each case.

Pleural Reaction

Pleural reactions occur but are infrequent (Fig 18). In one of the fatal cases described by Silverman *et al* (8) a massive pleural

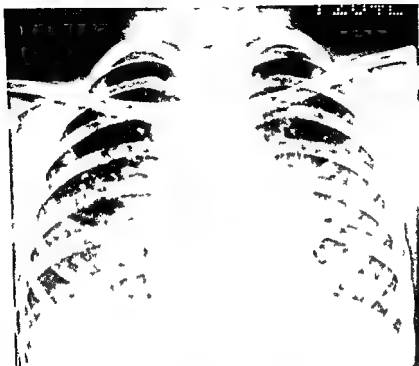


Fig 16\ Disseminated soft shadows July 1949 Mild respiratory symptoms (Courtesy *Am J Roentgenol Rad Therap & Nuclear Med* 1950)

effusion was present and from this pleural effusion could be cultured large numbers of *Histoplasma capsulatum*. In fact the organisms were actually found in cells obtained on direct smear of the pleural fluid. Massive accumulation of fluid however is uncommon even though the pathological material indicates that the primary focus is so frequently subpleural and that a pleural reaction is present at the site of the lesion. Perhaps just as in primary tuberculosis a local pleuritis is the rule rather than the exception but does not reach the level of radiologic demonstration unless a significant allergic reaction is involved (see Fig 11)



Fig 16B Disseminated soft shadows, December 1953. Faint nodularity throughout both lungs. (Courtesy *Am J Roentgenol Rad Therapy & Nuclear Med* 1950)

PULMONARY FIBROCAVITARY DISEASE

Although histoplasmosis as a cause of intrathoracic calcification has gradually dislodged tuberculosis from its position as the exclusive cause for this roentgenographic phenomenon, the presence of cavitory disease in the lung still evokes the diagnosis of tuberculosis with practically no differential diagnosis considered. The fact that effective antituberculous drugs and surgical skills are now available for tuberculosis may justify to some extent the perpetuation of this attitude; however, the proof that pulmonary histoplasmosis may develop into a chronic fibrocavitary type radiologically indistinguishable from tuberculosis merits consideration of a differential diagnosis. In fact, the chronic fibrocavitary type



Fig 17A Histoplasmosis coin lesion. Solitary rounded density in left lower lobe (Courtesy Dr Jan Schwarz *New England J Med* 1958)

of pulmonary histoplasmosis may carry a less favorable prognosis than tuberculosis at the present time and the differentiation may have significant prognostic value (27)

Roentgenographically one recognizes the same features which have been found in tuberculosis irregular areas of consolidation and fibrosis are adjacent to localized radiolucent areas some of



Fig 17B Histoplasmosis coin lesion Tomogram demonstrating calcium densities within lesion (Courtesy Dr Jan Schwarz *New England J Med* 1958)

which represent loculated emphysema but others of which represent actual destructive cavities communicating with a bronchus through which the destroyed parenchyma has been extruded by expectoration (Fig 19). Apical and subapical locations are the rule; beginning is infiltration and progressing to cavitation with surrounding parenchymal disease. Spread to other portions of the same lung or even to the opposite lung is not uncommon. This too tends to be in the apical region. Calcification in nodes is a common associated finding and suggested to Lehm *et al* (19) that cavity disease may represent a reinfection type of histoplasmosis comparable to the reinfection type of tuberculosis.



Fig. 18. Hilar reaction in (left) this histoplasmosis. (Cultural proof lacking)

The radiologic features are indistinguishable in the two diseases; however, the organism can be cultured by examination of expectorated material or material obtained on bronchoscopic exploration. Even the knowledge that tuberculosis is present should not exclude consideration of histoplasmosis in such lesions in individuals in or coming from the endemic area. Both diseases have been shown to coexist, and the fact that radiologic cure or improvement at least does not take place following institution of what would be adequate therapy for one disease may be the indication for the search of the other. Fibrocavitary disease of this type is not uncommonly associated with other chronic pulmonary disease, particularly carcinoma (Fig. 20). This is not remarkable since individuals with chronic fibrocavitary disease tend to be somewhat older than individuals with other forms of pulmonary histoplasmosis. When the cavities are produced by localized emphysema

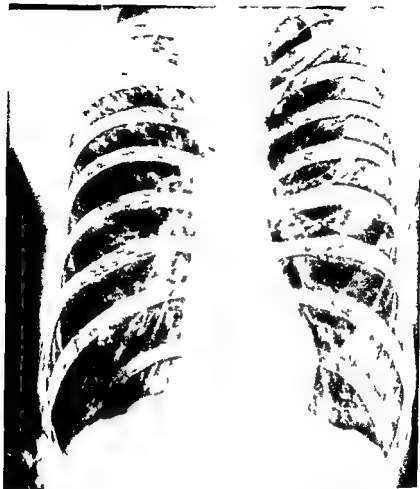


Fig 19 Fibrocavitary pulmonary histoplasmosis. Organisms in sputum treated by lobectomy. *H. capsulatum* also cultured from resected lung tissue and nodes. (Courtesy Dr H C Sweany)

rather than by destruction of tissue remarkable recovery can take place in many instances lesions remain stationary over long periods of time. Complications of pneumothorax and broncho pleural fistula have been reported (11)



Fig 20 Fibrocavitary pulmonary histoplasmosis complicating carcinoma. Both conditions diagnosed ante mortem and proved post mortem. (Courtesy *Am J Med* 1955)



Fig 21 Cervical and axillary lymphadenitis in proved subsequently fatal histoplasmosis. Organisms obtained from surgically drained cervical nodes

EXTRAPULMONARY FOCI

Extrapulmonary foci of histoplasmosis have been known since some of the earliest descriptions when mucocutaneous junction lesions and destructive processes in the nose and throat suggested that the disease would have considerable interest for otorhinolaryn



Fig. 2. Extrapulmonary calcification in axillary lymph node in association with intrapulmonary calcific lesion. Histologic positive, tuberculin negative. (Courtesy Am J Roentgenol Rad Therapy - Nuclear Med. 1950)

gologists (20-21). Although absolute proof is not yet available nevertheless the evidence strongly supports the possibility that these lesions, as the cutaneous lesions of blastomycosis (22) represent foci distributed via the blood stream as a complication of the primary disease rather than foci originating in the area where they are observed. The statistical study of Schulz (23) disagreed with this interpretation even though the lung was the most frequently involved organ in adults. In children hematogenous dissemination was more acceptable statistically. In this respect histoplasmosis probably differs somewhat from tuberculosis where extrapulmonary foci have been known to develop by direct infection. The lesions of the mucous membranes of the mouth, nose and throat have little radiologic significance in themselves. On the other



Fig 23 \ Extrapulmonary calcification in spleen in vivo Chest film in 71 year old female with large characteristic pulmonary calcific focus Splenic calcification barely noticeable (Courtesy *Am J Roentgenol Rad Therapy & Nuclear Med* 1956)

hand extrapulmonary foci in lymph nodes where calcification occurs more frequently is of radiologic interest Proved instances of cervical adenitis with calcification resulting from histoplasmosis are not immediately available however the clinical observation of proved disease in the acute stage in these areas would make this



Fig 25B. Extrapulmonary calcification in spleen *in vivo*. Heavily penetrated film over splenic artery. Multiple calcifications clearly shown. Compare with

possibility a very real one (Fig 21). In individuals with calcification in cervical lymph nodes and who react to tuberculin and histoplasmin the identification of the cause for the calcification is as insecure as it is when calcification occurs in the lung. Calcification has been observed in an axillary lymph node in a child who has a positive histoplasmin skin test and a negative tuberculin test (Fig 22) although this is not proved it strongly favors the possi-



Fig 24A Extrapulmonary calcification in spleen post mortem. Note typical rounded concentrically calcified lesions. Spleen (Courtesy New England J Med)

bility that this calcification did in fact result from disseminated histoplasmosis. Whether the dissemination was via the blood stream or via the lymphatics from the lung is open to question. Insofar as cervical axillary and even infradiaphragmatic lymph nodes are concerned both pathways are possible. However the finding of splenic calcification first pointed out by Hill (21) almost certainly requires hematogenous dissemination. The incidence of splenic calcification has been studied by Schwarz *et al* (25) and corresponds as does the incidence of intrathoracic calcification to the incidence of histoplasmin sensitivity. In addition the frequency of splenic calcification differs in the endemic area in comparison with areas where histoplasmosis is not endemic. Characteristic features of such calcifications as opposed to calcifications which are found in up to 25% of spleens in non endemic areas

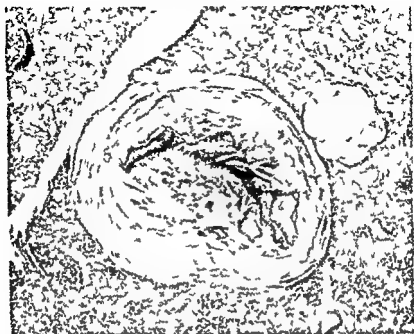


Fig. 94b. Extrapulmonary calcification in spleen post mortem. A. are typical rounded concentrically calcified lesions. Histologic substrate of lamellated calcific splenic focus. (Courtesy, *Acta Endocrinologica*)

include (1) multiple lesions and (2) lesions which are discretely rounded uniform in density or possessing a lamellated appearance which corresponds closely to the histologic findings (Fig. 21). Many more involved spleens are found if organs are examined after removal from the body than are found in routine examination because of the effect of filtration of the surrounding tissues on the frequently relatively faint calcific shadows (Fig. 21). The demonstration of the frequency of disseminated calcification in the spleen is an important point in clarifying the pathogenesis of histoplasmosis. It is truly remarkable that a disease the etiologic agent of which can be spread in such numbers through the blood stream and which can when localized in the spleen cause multiple areas of necrosis, it is remarkable that such a disease can occur in so benign a form as to be clinically unappreciated or undifferentiated

from the common upper or lower respiratory infections experienced in the course of normal activity. Disseminated splenic calcifications also suggest that calcific lesions should be found in other organs if an adequate search is made. In fact lesions in the liver are now known to be present when search is made for them. Strangely enough the kidney appears to be relatively spared radiologically but pathologically at least this organ is involved (23). The distribution of lesions in the various organs has been described by Schulz (23) however the majority of these lesions are radiologically invisible.

Adrenal lesions are found with considerable frequency and comment has already been made in the section on clinical manifestations concerning the presence of Addison's disease as a manifestation of histoplasmosis. Adrenal calcification as a direct result of histoplasmosis has not been recognized roentgenographically even if calcification were found one probably could not clearly differentiate it from that which tends to occur normally in a certain percentage of individuals usually children probably as a sequel to involution of the fetal cortex. It is interesting too that notwithstanding the frequency of bone marrow involvement actual destructive or productive changes in bone have been described only once (26). In this instance there was merely spotty bone atrophy associated with soft tissue thickening about the knee and fluid in the joint. Granulation tissue with cells containing parasitized organisms were found to be invading the bone in the area where the demineralization was noted.

Anatomical lesions in the bowel have been described at post mortem examination and prominent ulcerations have been found associated with massive bleeding. In none of these instances have contrast studies of the bowel been undertaken. It is quite possible that either the granulomatous lesions or the ulcerations could be shown by appropriate contrast examination of the intestinal tract but identification of any pathologic change as histoplasmosal would not be acceptable on roentgen grounds alone. From the standpoint of lesions which have not yet been found it is probably pertinent to emphasize that intracranial calcification as a manifestation of histoplasmosis has yet to be proved this is an important considera-

tion inasmuch as in the endemic area there is a tendency to explain any type of calcification in association with a positive histoplasmin skin test as produced by histoplasmosis. This is a dangerous attitude particularly with respect to calcification involving the central nervous system. Pathologically lesions in the central nervous system have been found but no calcification has been described as yet.

HEPATOSPLENOMEGALY WITH NORMAL CHEST

In the diagnosis of histoplasmosis in infants the finding of hepatosplenomegaly may warrant serious consideration of the disease in question. Not infrequently an infant with hematogenous disseminated histoplasmosis fails to demonstrate intrathoracic lesions which would point to the disease having a pulmonary origin but instead does show the massive hepatosplenomegaly which is non specific (Fig. 25). In some instances the clinical suspicion of leukemia is raised because of extensive bone marrow involvement the absence of skeletal lesions which occur with considerable frequency in leukemia and the presence of hepatosplenomegaly may be the indication that we are dealing with histoplasmosis instead. In fact in one instance known to the author the diagnosis of leukemia was thought to be supported by the fact that a sibling had previously died of leukemia. The infrequency of familial leukemia however raised the question of the accuracy of the initial diagnosis and suggested that both children were suffering from disseminated histoplasmosis instead. This proved to be the case. Perhaps if more of the infants with hepatosplenomegaly were to survive the tell tale shadows would make their appearance in the lung. In one case in which death occurred shortly after the diagnosis was made roentgenograms of the chest demonstrated no intrathoracic lesions even though on pathologic examination two well developed primary foci each measuring 5 mm in diameter and containing enough calcium to be gritty when sectioned were found at autopsy (8). These lesions could not be identified even on review of the films when their position was known.

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pathologic change. Not infrequently these individuals are admitted to the hospital for febrile illnesses of an ill-defined nature. Laboratory studies are initially negative and routine examinations of the chest and abdomen are unrewarding. Recovery or improvement appears to be spontaneous and the patient returns home. Subsequently blood cultures taken during the period of acute illness turn out to be positive and the patient is recalled to the hospital for evaluation, having no signs or symptoms of his disease or relatively mild illness which can be attributed to histoplasmosis only by inference. It is quite probable that this situation obtains in the great majority of individuals who develop asymptomatic or mildly symptomatic histoplasmosis and a positive histoplasmin skin test. The appearance of intrathoracic calcification subsequently in these individuals is at times a surprising finding in the absence of obvious soft lesions. However it is important to recognize that disseminated disease may be present in the absence of any radiologic signs even more frequently than in the absence of clinical signs and symptoms.

SUMMARY

To summarize the radiologic findings in histoplasmosis it may be said that a spectrum of disease exists much as it does in the clinical form. The acute forms of the disease if they do have radiologic manifestations are related in large part to the distribution of the organism in the various organs and the susceptibility of the organs and their lesions to radiologic demonstration. In the chronic form of the disease the lungs are almost exclusively involved and these demonstrate fibrocavitary changes indistinguishable from those of chronic pulmonary tuberculosis or other chronic pulmonary inflammatory disease. In the healed or healing stages calcification takes place with considerable frequency; the most frequent lesions are found in the lungs but extrapulmonary foci may make their appearance in the healing phase when they were radiologically invisible during their acute stage. Thus the roentgen examination may serve not only as a case finding tool but may also mirror to a greater or lesser degree the extent and severity of the disease.



Fig 25 Massive hepatosplenomegaly and normal chest in infant with symptomatic non fatal histoplasmosis (Courtesy *Am J Roentgenol Rad Ther* 1950)

NORMAL CHEST WITH POSITIVE BLOOD AND/OR BONE MARROW CULTURE

In a not insignificant number of patients the diagnosis of histoplasmosis has been proved by positive blood and/or bone marrow cultures in the absence of any radiologically demonstrable

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tion than one would customarily assume in classifying the clinical types of any disease but is a vital concept in understanding the frequency of clinical disease versus the frequency of infection. The actual spectrum of infection or disease accompanying infection has been demonstrated in only a very few diseases such as certain enteric infections, poliomyelitis and some other CNS viral infections. Perhaps one of the best demonstrations of the spectrum of a fungus disease was that of Dr. Smith and his group who studied the clinical spectrum of coccidioidomycosis in Army personnel in the Southwest during World War II (1). The basic problem of the clinical spectrum of illness was brought out by these studies where it was shown that approximately 76% of the patients who developed infection as evidenced by change of skin tests from negative to positive had such a mild infection as to be classified as either asymptomatic or so mild as to be unrecognized. Since similar problems exist with tuberculosis and with histoplasmosis it appears desirable to discuss the broad spectrum of response of the host to infection rather than simply clinical illness. The proposed classification is considered tentative at best. This is especially so since although the disease was only recognized as a widespread problem in 1945 it has now been estimated that more than 30 000 000 people are infected in the United States. The clinical concepts of the disease are changing and additional knowledge is being added each year. Attempts at the clinical classification of the disease have become increasingly frequent and it is interesting that although 7 references to clinical classifications were referred to at the time of the previous classification in 1956 (2) at least as many clinical classifications have been published in the last two years (3-10).

The basic difficulty with the easy recognition of the disease is explained by the fact that the disease spectrum runs all the way from asymptomatic or mild infection to acute fulminating disease to chronic cavitary disease of long duration. Since histoplasmosis is apparently not a new disease it is obvious that the clinical symptoms must mimic other diseases otherwise the characteristic clinical picture would long ago have been recognized and described.

Against a background of this mimicry of other well known in

CLINICAL TYPES OF HISTOPLASMOSIS

MICHAEL L. FURCOLOW

With histoplasmosis as with every other infectious disease the disease picture and clinical illness is essentially the result of a battle between host resistance and virulence of the organism. Thus the organism may enter the lungs and set up a minor pathological response, skin test sensitivity may develop and the patient may have no illness or minimal illness. In other cases the pulmonary proliferation of the organism is more extensive and organisms may enter the hilar lymph nodes and not infrequently the circulation. In most of these cases also the clinical response is mild and the resulting development of resistance in the individual localizes the organism and overcomes the disseminated foci. In still other cases the disease progresses locally resulting in the development of local nodules and even cavities usually at the site of the original pneumonic infiltrations. Cavities are not as common as in coccidioidomycosis. In still other individuals the growth of the fungus seems unimpeded and progresses through the lungs to the regional lymph nodes and the blood stream and the result is disseminated disease often times with a minimal of pulmonary infiltration. Here the organism is found in all the tissues of the body and the prognosis is immediately much more guarded. These disseminated cases may be roughly classified into two types: the acute type in which the prognosis is decided within the first 1 to 6 weeks and quite often ends fatally, and the chronic variety in which the balance is more evenly drawn between the host and the organism and the patient may go on with chronic disseminated disease for a period of a year or two. However in these cases also the outlook is grim and most of them eventually succumb to the infection.

Any discussion of the clinical types of histoplasmosis must in the opinion of the author include a discussion of the entire spectrum covering the responses of the host to implantation of the fungus *Histoplasma capsulatum*. This is perhaps a broader defini-

TABLE I

Cl Type	S b lat S ₃ sm	Symptom	T mp t e	Ch t Y y	Age	Cl frequency	D sto	R t pos	Laboratory			Prognosis	
									SRL	T t	Ser t ex		Culture
A t p lim ry	A A sm p t m t	N e	?	Up to 1/3 m st b l	A y age	R re	?	?	+	?	?	Good	
	B Symp o m m l Mld	M l se fe	Up t 100 101	At least 1/3 b les na 1/3 Nod l r 1/4 P noo lc 1/10 Nod p	A y age	Prob bly ry fre q t	1 4 d ys	?	+	±	±	Good	
	M d F Co gh	M l se	Up t 104 105	Atyp cal p o	A y age	Prob bly f eq nt	5 15 d ys	Common acute phase M y occur lter	+	+	+	Prob bly pos t l e	Good
Chro c p lim ry	3 Sc t (epi d m)	F r Mal se Chro p C gh	L p to 106	Dissem t d p m t o bo h l gs	Young d h W knen Solid m	Fas ly fre q t	Up to 6 m th	M y occ r	+	+	+	Pos t l e	Good most f tal
	P gr (C t ry)	Co gh Sp um M l F	M ld Up t 100 101	F bro C t Hy Atyp l Ofr n l l d lre	Mostly er 50	M y be p to 10 pc t TB totia	1 10 y rs	U al	+	+	+	+	Poor ent f t l
A te d sem t d	A B gm	Sp l g t m pira H p t megal y Sp l m galy a d D rthca	Up t 106	M y be nega ti	Old h ldre	L k ow	1 8 week	L m	±	+	+	+	Good
	B P ogres	Sp l g t m p t re H p t m galy Sp l m galy d D rthca	Up t 106	M y be M t	Expect lly ry yo g d ld w h o ber a t p y d se se	U k own of em di g sed t a t p y	1 6 weeks	?	?	?	?	?	Always f tal
Chro d sem t d	M coc ta eo	Ulc na to g l ryma mo th	N e t t r t r septic	M y be e t	Old p noo	U k wn	6 week t 5 years		±	+	+	+	Poor u ally f tal

sections and clinical entities, an attempt will be made to describe the clinical spectrum of histoplasmosis. The classification might be divided on what one might call purely clinical grounds stressing mainly the symptomatic types that might be encountered by the physician or it might be done on what could be called more anatomical grounds stressing the organs which are most likely involved and the symptoms which go with such involvement. In a prior classification attempted by the author in 1956 the purely clinical approach was used but increasing recognition of the pathogenesis of the disease and its mimicry of tuberculosis has suggested that perhaps it would be better to classify the disease more from an anatomical approach. Accordingly the broad classification will be divided into pulmonary histoplasmosis and disseminated histoplasmosis each subdivided into acute and chronic varieties. Localized lesions and some of the less well classified types of infection will be discussed in the subsequent sections. This classification is illustrated in Table I.

The division into pulmonary and disseminated may well be criticized since the current concepts of infection (see epidemiology chapter) indicate that practically all infections take place by way of the lungs. In other words the organisms are inhaled and regardless of the subsequent clinical picture the primary infection occurs in the lungs. However it does appear worthwhile to divide the manifestations into primarily pulmonary and primarily systemic or disseminated. It should be stated here that the term disseminated as applied in mycology (following the usage of Dr. Charles E. Smith) has come to mean the occurrence of lesions or spread of infection outside of the lungs themselves. In other words the term disseminated is not employed in discussing intrapulmonary disease. This is a necessary qualification in view of the different application of this terminology in tuberculosis and some other diseases.

ACUTE PULMONARY HISTOPLASMOSIS

Asymptomatic Asymptomatic infection is by far the most common type. In the reports of the Smith studies referred to earlier on coccidioidomycosis 60% of the patients denied any illness whatsoever (1). It is interesting to note that among laboratory personnel

TABLE I

Clinical Type	Subclinical Symptom	Symptom	Temperature	Chick Test	Age	Illness Frequency	Duration	RIP	Laboratory			Prognosis
									Stain	Serial	Culture	
Acute	A. Asymptomatic	N	?	Up to 1/3 m t b	4 y age	Rare	?	?	+	?	?	Good
	B. Symptomatic Mild	Mild fever	Up to 100.1	At least 1/3 m t b 1/4 m t b 1/10 Nodes	4 y age	Probably twice	14 d	?	+	±	?	Good
	Mild fever	Mild fever	Up to 104.105	Atypical	4 y age	Probably once	5-15 d	Common in acute phase	+	+	Probably positive early	Good
Chronic	Subclinical	Fever, Chills, Cough	Up to 106	Dermatome both	Adult	Probably once	Up to 6 m	Probably once	+	+	Probably positive	Good
	Chronic	Cough, Fever	Up to 100.101	Fever, Cough, Chills, Atypical	Adult	Probably once	10 y	Probably once	+	+	+	Probably once
	Chronic	Cough, Fever	Up to 106	Atypical	Adult	Probably once	18 weeks	Probably once	±	+	+	Good
Advanced	Subclinical	Spontaneous, Fever, Chills, Cough, Fever	Up to 106	Atypical	Adult	Probably once	18 weeks	Probably once	±	+	+	Probably once
	Subclinical	Spontaneous, Fever, Chills, Cough, Fever	Up to 106	Atypical	Adult	Probably once	18 weeks	Probably once	±	+	+	Probably once
	Subclinical	Spontaneous, Fever, Chills, Cough, Fever	Up to 106	Atypical	Adult	Probably once	18 weeks	Probably once	±	+	+	Probably once
Chronic	Subclinical	Spontaneous, Fever, Chills, Cough, Fever	Up to 106	Atypical	Adult	Probably once	18 weeks	Probably once	±	+	+	Probably once
	Subclinical	Spontaneous, Fever, Chills, Cough, Fever	Up to 106	Atypical	Adult	Probably once	18 weeks	Probably once	±	+	+	Probably once
	Subclinical	Spontaneous, Fever, Chills, Cough, Fever	Up to 106	Atypical	Adult	Probably once	18 weeks	Probably once	±	+	+	Probably once

fections and clinical entities, an attempt will be made to describe the clinical spectrum of histoplasmosis. The classification might be divided on what one might call purely clinical grounds stressing mainly the symptomatic types that might be encountered by the physician or it might be done on what could be called more anatomical grounds stressing the organs which are most likely involved and the symptoms which go with such involvement. In a prior classification attempted by the author in 1956 the purely clinical approach was used but increasing recognition of the pathogenesis of the disease and its mimicry of tuberculosis has suggested that perhaps it would be better to classify the disease more from an anatomical approach. Accordingly the broad classification will be divided into pulmonary histoplasmosis and disseminated histoplasmosis each subdivided into acute and chronic varieties. Localized lesions and some of the less well classified types of infection will be discussed in the subsequent sections. This classification is illustrated in Table I.

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of three years (12). Approximately 30% of these persons developed definite x ray lesions during the six months following conversion. Significant numbers of lesions also first became apparent at later intervals following the conversion probably associated with hardening or calcification of the lesions. Table II shows the data on which these figures are based.

TABLE II

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF HISTOPLASMIN SKIN TEST CONVERTERS WITH PREVIOUSLY NEGATIVE CHEST X RAYS WHO DEVELOPED NEW LESIONS ARRANGED BY SIX MONTH PERIODS FOLLOWING THE ESTABLISHED DATE OF CONVERSION

Certainty of Lesions	Total Number of Persons	Percent	Months after Conversion			
			6-11	1-11	12-3	Over 24
Number						
Definite	94	100	4	1	0	0
Probable	2	3	2		0	0
Questionable	6		1	1	1	1
Negative	31	3	31	21	17	16
Total	91	40	41	33	19	17
Percent						
Definite	3	99	1	12	5	0
Probable	10		6		0	0
Questionable	7	4	0	3	0	0
Negative	48	6	40	3	90	94
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

One probable x ray lesion appeared 18 months before skin test conversion

Fig. 2 shows the frequency of positive complement fixation tests to histoplasmosis among the same group by the months after conversion of the skin tests. This figure is based on the results of a total of 219 serological tests on 77 histoplasmin skin test converters. It is thus apparent that one fourth to one third of the converters develop either skin lesions or x ray changes or both even though no serious clinical illness could be elicited by questioning. Indeed

fairly carefully studied in the Kansas City Field Station (11) who were infected in the course of their work approximately 60% admitted no illness. However since some of the illnesses described below will be extremely mild it is quite obvious that they could have been missed. Even among these asymptomatic patients x ray lesions are not at all unusual. Since approximately one third of the persons with positive skin tests show calcified lesions discernible in their x ray films it is evident that at least this number must develop x ray changes of a significant character during their infection. The prognosis in asymptomatic infection is good since if estimates of 50 000 000 people infected in the United States are correct it is obvious that most of them must recover without serious illness or disease.

Fig 1 shows the development of x ray lesions among a group of skin test converters followed in a school survey during a period

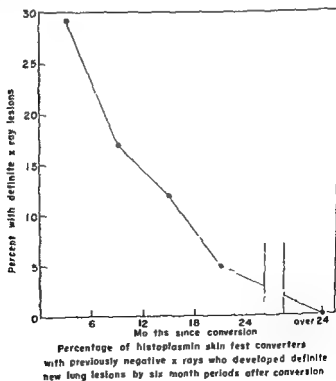


Fig 1

or two. With more severe infection similar symptoms are more prolonged, there is more of a tendency for a cough to develop, and relapses may occur if the patient is ambulated too early. In addition the patient usually feels prostrated for a considerable time after recovery. Thrombophlebitis, sometimes with embolic pneumonia, may occur during the acute phase. The x-ray lesions in the milder type range from a nodule or two in the lungs with or without hilar adenopathy to increasing numbers of lesions, usually with hilar adenopathy (see Figs 3 to 6). The lesions are usually of a nodular type although pneumonic infiltrates are seen. In the more severe disease a picture resembling atypical pneumonia is frequently seen with infiltration fanning out from both hilar areas.



Fig 3. W F age 1. Nodule with calcific center seen in left third interspace with enlarged hilar nodes. Serological tests for histoplasmosis positive. No history of illness. (Courtesy of Public Health Reports)

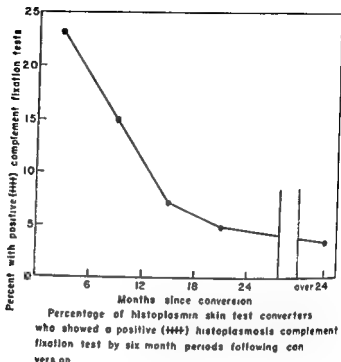


Fig 2

the only history of illness obtainable was of the usual colds influenza etc so common among school children. Some of these children may therefore have been symptomatic infections if one could ascertain the exact time of infection.

Symptomatic Infections The clinical findings accompanying *Histoplasma capsulatum* invasion of the host may be divided into mild moderately severe and severe or they simply may be classified as being of varying severity running from extremely mild influenza lasting for a day or two to extremely severe non specific illness resembling atypical pneumonia and lasting sometimes for months. One suspects that the degree of illness which appears to correlate quite well with the degree of pneumonic infiltration may simply be an expression of the severity of infection or the number of organisms inhaled. In the milder varieties the influenza like illness consisting of malaise and mild fever may last only for a day



Fig. 4B Healing of the lesion by calcification 5 years later. (Reprinted by permission from Rabin Coleman II *et al* *Roentgenology of the Chest* Springfield Ill: Charles C Thomas Publisher 1958)

that one can more freely classify together the various symptomatic types of pulmonary histoplasmosis in that epidemiological evidence suggests that perhaps most if not all of the *Histoplasma* infections are indeed epidemics in miniature there being evidence that most infections even among city children are acquired by visits to point sources and the acquisition of the infection at these point sources (13 also see Epidemiology Chapter)

The epidemics themselves are dramatic instances which in the past have been reported under such interesting names as acute interstitial pneumonitis (14) cave sickness (15) bat disease (16) Tingo Maria fever (17) speleologists disease (18) etc



Fig 4A W F age 9 Single pneumonic lesion with nodes in the right midlung noted in April 1948. Tuberculin negative. Serological tests for histoplasmosis were originally negative later positive with drop again to negative on recovery. No specific history of illness during this time was obtainable. Patient attended school regularly. (Reprinted by permission from Rabin Coleman B *et al* *Roentgenology of the Chest* Springfield Ill Charles C Thomas Publisher 1958)

This type is accompanied by illness more severe than the isolated pulmonary nodules probably because more lung tissue is involved. The most severe type of symptomatic pulmonary infection is the epidemic type of disease where multiple infiltrates are scattered throughout all the lung fields and patients are often severely ill requiring hospitalization for periods of weeks or months. With symptomatic histoplasmosis the onset is usually acute becoming more clearly evident with the epidemic type of disease. The reason

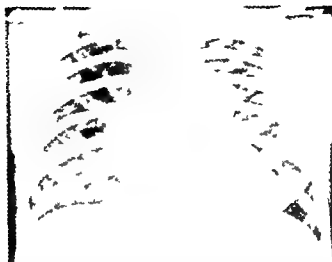


Fig 7A W M age 6 Film of October 4 1950 revealed multiple soft pneu-
monic infiltrated with perihilar infiltration especially evident in right lung
Tuberculin skin tests negative histoplasmin positive (Reprinted by permis-
sion from Rabin Coleman B *et al* *Roentgenology of the Chest* Springfield
Ill Charles C Thomas Publisher 1958)

It appears that most cases reported as healed military tuberculosis are in fact healed military histoplasmosis.

The physician is often struck by the variation in clinical illness in a single epidemic (20) and by the variety of x-ray lesions seen from a very few to what appears to be involvement of most of both lung fields (21). It is on this basis that the postulate is made that most histoplasmosis is contracted at point sources and that the various clinical manifestations depend to a large extent on the degree of resistance of the host and the number of organisms inhaled.

For some reason it appears that most of the epidemics have concerned young adults workmen soldiers and persons of that type. Whether young previously uninfected adults suffer a more severe clinical response to the disease than persons of younger ages has not been determined. However it is clear that among family epidemics the most severe disease tends to occur among the young.



Fig 5 W M age 6 Greatly enlarged mediastinal node on right with small infiltration right second interspace Child became ill with colds about 1 month ago with fever and mild cough Symptoms persisted for 6 weeks Tuberculin negative histoplasmin positive serological tests for histoplasmosis strongly positive

Fig 6 W M age 13 X ray November 4 1946 Marked perihilar infiltration bilaterally with atelectasis of right lower lobe Patchy infiltrates in left second and third and right midlung filled Subsequently required lobectomy of middle lobe Cultures of resected lobe negative Histoplasmin positive tuberculin negative serological tests for histoplasmosis repeatedly positive

Indeed one recent author has gone so far as to suggest that perhaps the curse that accompanied the opening of the Egyptian tombs (the Curse of King Tut) might well have been histoplasmosis (19) The epidemics are indeed striking occurrences since the acute onset the coincidental exposure of a number of persons and the severity of the disease usually lead the physician to suspect the point source prior to the actual demonstration of the etiology The wide spread pulmonary infiltrations (Fig 7A) are also now known to be characteristic of this type of disease and indeed are the only type of x ray changes in histoplasmosis which can be regarded as characteristic This type of pulmonary change results after the passage of time in most cases in the development of healed milinary calcification of a type formerly called healed milinary tuberculosis (Fig 7B)

CHRONIC PULMONARY HISTOPLASMOSIS

(Progressive Cavitory)

This disease is of extreme interest since at the time of the previous report in 1956 only 15 cases had been reported in the literature and the problem was just developing. It is now quite obvious that this problem is of extreme importance in tuberculosis sanatoria throughout the whole country (21). Surveys have been conducted in 37 sanatoria in 24 states. A total of almost 20,000 sera have been tested and more than 1,000 positive serological tests have been found. The frequency of positive serological tests increases with the frequency of histoplasmin sensitivity in the area varying from 2% in areas of low sensitivity to more than 7% in areas of high histoplasmin sensitivity. Since more than one third of these cases can be demonstrated to be active disease by careful cultural studies it is quite obvious that this is a matter of great significance to the medical profession. Between 1 and 2% of all admissions to one Sanatorium in Missouri and 2% in Tennessee can be proved to have active pulmonary histoplasmosis by culture. The symptoms of chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis resemble in every way those of chronic pulmonary tuberculosis namely cough sputum malaise mild fever and loss of weight. Bloody sputum is infrequent. In general the patient's symptoms are mild and are characterized by exacerbations and remissions. During the remissions the patient feels relatively well. The exacerbations are characterized by the onset of what is thought by the patient to be influenza at which time new areas of the lung are found to be involved. The patients are usually in the older age group and many show a record of previous hospital admissions. The disease is chronic and tends to progress over the years (Fig 8A and 8B). Recent studies of 87 cases followed for three years or more indicated that 79% had progressed involving more areas of the lung than were involved when first observed (Fig 9). The duration may be for as long as 20 years depending on the rapidity of progress of the disease. Relapses are usual and many of these patients obviously would be found in sanatoria. The laboratory tests show positive skin and serological tests and positive results by culture. The sputum is not infrequently loaded with organisms and no difficulty is encountered in most cases in isolation



Fig 7B The calcification which appears with healing 4 years later makes evident the extent of the pulmonary involvement. This boy was absent from school for an entire year with cough, headache and painful joints. Both tuberculosis and histoplasmosis were considered but no treatment instituted because of slow clearing of the lesions. (Reprinted by permission from Rabin, Coleman B. et al. *Röntgenology of the Chest*. Springfield, Ill. Charles C Thomas Publisher 1958.)

adults or adults in contrast to children. This may be because of heavier exposure of the adults.

Histoplasmoma A development of extreme interest in regard to the ultimate fate of the acute pulmonary infiltrations due to *Histoplasma* is the finding of pulmonary coin lesions or histoplasmoma as they have been called by Katz (22). The original connection of these granulomata to histoplasmosis was first reported by Puckett (23) who indicated that histoplasmoma is the most common granulomatous lesion occurring in the lung. Experience in a number of different surgical clinics has shown that up to 80% of the coin lesions removed because of confusion with possible lung cancer have revealed *Histoplasma capsulatum* with proper staining. Since calcification commonly develops in *Histoplasma* infection the presence of calcification is evidence in favor of the histoplasmic origin of these coin lesions.



Fig 9 N M age 56 from an Illinois hospital. Onset 15 months before with chest cold. Histoplasmin skin test negative. Complement fixation test for histoplasmosis positive. Cultures positive for *H. capsulatum*. Bilateral pulmonary infiltration and cavitation involving the upper half of the right lung and medial half of left lung. (By permission of the American Academy of General Practice.)

Fig 10 W M age 69 from a Kansas hospital. Tuberculin negative, histoplasmin positive. Four negative sputums, three negative gastric for tubercle bacilli. X ray shows infiltration and cavitation right upper lung, scarring and calcification left base. *Histoplasma capsulatum* repeatedly isolated from the sputum. (By permission from the American Academy of General Practice.)

circulation that the patient dies of circulatory or respiratory difficulties more than from active histoplasmosis. However in many patients the disease progresses and eventually disseminates just prior to death.

ACUTE DISSEMINATED HISTOPLASMOSIS

In many ways it is unfortunate to separate acute disseminated histoplasmosis from acute pulmonary histoplasmosis since the portal of entry in most cases is presumed to be the lungs. However Christie (25) has indicated that it is also possible that some cases are infected by way of the gastrointestinal tract. At any rate the characteristics of disseminated disease are that the organisms in dissemi-

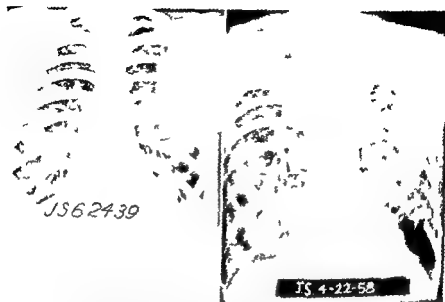


Fig 8A W M age 59 years native of Iowa X ray June 6 1939 shows marked confluent infiltration of the left midlung with a very large cavity medially and other possible cavities. Scattered infiltrates are seen in the right lung especially the upper lobe. Patient had had known chest disease for 3 years suspected of being tuberculosis but never proved.

Fig 8B X ray taken 19 years after Figure 8A. Marked progression of the disease on the left is seen with destruction of most of the left lung. Typical infiltration and cavitation are seen on the right. The patient has negative tuberculin and positive histoplasmin skin tests. His sputum has been repeatedly positive for *H. capsulatum* and his serological tests for histoplasmosis are positive. Workup for tuberculosis negative.

of the organism from the sputum. The X rays in this type of disease show fibrotic infiltration usually of the apical areas of the lungs progressing to cavitation. Bilateral pulmonary cavitation is extremely common indeed typical as the disease advances. Calcified lesions are frequently observed in the hilar areas suggesting that perhaps this is a reinfection type of disease since many of these patients are negative to tuberculin (Fig 10).

The course of the disease is chronic and usually terminates fatally although the progressive involvement of the lungs may result in so much destruction of lung tissue and obstruction of



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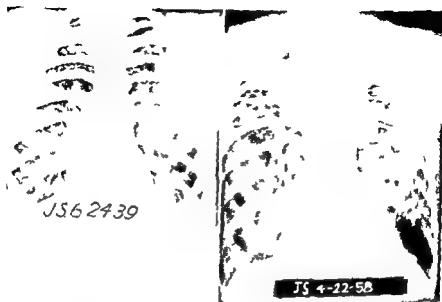


Fig 8A W M age 39 years native of Iowa X ray June 11 1939 shows marked confluent infiltration of the left midlung with a very large cavity medially and other possible cavities. Scattered infiltrates are seen in the right lung especially the upper lobe. Patient had had known chest disease for 3 years suspected of being tuberculosis but never proved.

Fig 8B X ray taken 19 years after Figure 8A. Marked progression of the disease on the left is seen with destruction of most of the left lung. Apical infiltration and cavitation is seen on the right. The patient has negative tuberculin and positive histoplasmin skin tests. His sputum has been repeatedly positive for *H. capsulatum* and his serological tests for histoplasmosis are positive. Workup for tuberculosis negative.

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CHRONIC DISSEMINATED HISTOPLASMOSIS

This type of disease is just becoming recognized and is characterized by the presence of disseminated disease of a rather chronic nature. Indeed cases of this type have been known to live for three or four years with local or generalized evidence of *Histoplasma* infection. Chronic dissemination appears to be more common in adults than in children. This type of disease is most frequently found among patients suffering from other diseases such as tuberculosis, Hodgkin's disease, leukemia, or similar chronic diseases. The disease is extremely difficult to differentiate from the lymphomatous disorders because of the enlargement of the liver, spleen and lymph nodes which may occur. In addition the growth of the fungus in the bone marrow may distort the blood cell picture so as to resemble leukemia even further.

In many cases of chronic disseminated histoplasmosis the adrenal glands may be invaded and indeed destroyed by the fungus. This results in the addition of Addison's disease to the patient's symptoms. Hence easy fatigueability, low sodium levels in the blood and hyperpigmentation of the skin should be looked for and indeed expected. In many cases the adrenals at autopsy appear completely destroyed by the growth of the fungus. Quite frequently the disease is first diagnosed by the finding of a mucosal or laryngeal ulcer which when biopsied reveals *H. capsulatum*. In most of these cases when careful examination is done other signs of dissemination will be found such as enlargement of the liver and spleen, positive serological tests, positive blood cultures, etc. In our experience these lesions are not benign and while the disease may be present in a chronic form for periods of several years the patients all ultimately died of histoplasmosis, with the exception of a few in the past year who have been treated. Contrary to our experience Christie (3) reports that some mucocutaneous lesions are benign. Patients with dissemination may or may not show pulmonary involvement. They quite often have other diseases and their course is in general prolonged. However as mentioned before the disease does tend to disseminate terminally and in our experience usually end fatally.

We now come to discussion of the less frequent types of histo

nated throughout the body by way of the blood stream while the pulmonary manifestations are few or absent. It has slowly emerged that cases of acute disseminated histoplasmosis are not always fatal as previously suggested (26). There appear to be 3 possible outcomes—the first—recovery, the second—acute dissemination with rapid fatal outcome and the third—chronic dissemination with ultimate death but only after as much as 1 year. The characteristics of the acute disseminated disease are that lung lesions are often relatively few or inconspicuous whereas the signs of systemic disease spiking temperature often up to as high as 105 or 106°F, hepatomegaly and splenomegaly are common. In the predominantly gastrointestinal type diarrhea is a common symptom. In disseminated disease the chest x rays may be negative although usually at autopsy pulmonary foci are discovered. Dissemination is more common among the very young and very old possibly because of lowered resistance in these age groups. The frequency of this type of disease is unknown since misdiagnoses are not uncommon and often diagnosis is made only at autopsy. The duration in acute disseminated histoplasmosis is ordinarily 6 weeks or less. If the duration is more than 6 weeks the case is arbitrarily classed as chronic. In disseminated disease skin tests are often negative possibly because of the high temperature or prostration. Serological tests are almost always positive as is culture of the blood or bone marrow. Prognosis based on the outcome which is of course merely a measure of the resistance of the host divides these cases into benign and progressive. Even in the earliest reports of histoplasmosis cases are found of disseminated disease in which recovery has taken place (27). With the increasing recognition of the disease the frequency of non fatal dissemination is increasing (See chapter on epidemiology). However it still remains true that in the progressive type of acute disseminated histoplasmosis the prognosis is extremely grave and most of these cases die in a short time. In children acute disseminated progressive disease is quite frequently manifest by diarrhea and predominantly gastrointestinal symptoms. This occurs occasionally in adults but is unusual as the author has only seen two cases of this type in an experience involving several hundred cases.

This has been reported in a number of cases and we have seen several cases ourselves (35). In addition if the nodes happen to surround the bronchus constriction is not uncommon with hyperinflation and atelectasis and bronchiectasis is the result. Sometimes the bronchiectasis is merely mechanical and is not accompanied by active



Fig 11 W M age 16 Chest x ray July 9 1958 reveals thick walled cavity with apparent fluid level in right midlung. Several thin walled areas suspected of cavity neater hilus. Other areas in first interspace and hilus appear to be calcifying. Tuberculin negative histoplasmin positive serologic tests for histoplasmosis positive. This represents one in a series of x rays showing several areas of infiltration alternating with thin or thick walled cavities.

plasmosis which perhaps should not be dignified by the terms of types. These are varieties of disease whose etiology is unquestioned but frequency and importance are as yet unknown.

Cutaneous Histoplasmosis This will be discussed as either primary or secondary. Due to the studies of Wilson in coccidioidomycosis (28) and Schwarz and Baum (29) and Wilson (30) in blastomycosis there has been considerable interest in primary or inoculation histoplasmosis. This type is characterized by a localized chancre like lesion at the point of inoculation accompanied by enlargement of the regional lymph nodes. It is extremely uncommon in histoplasmosis. Curtis and Cawley (31) having reported the only 2 known cases as penile lesions. We have seen one other possible case in a laboratory washer who developed an indurated ulcer on his finger with regional lymphadenitis while handling *Histoplasma* in the laboratory. His skin test converted to positive and an x-ray lesion developed in his lung and his serologic tests for histoplasmosis became positive. Three other cases showing only cutaneous involvement but without the chancre form lesion or regional adenitis have been reported: 2 from England (32) and one from Australia (33).

Secondary involvement of the skin and mucous membranes accompanying dissemination is not uncommon occurring in perhaps a third of the reported cases. Such lesions are usually part of a progressive disease and the outlook is poor although Iosli (4) states that transitory dissemination of the fungus with skin and mucous membrane lesions have been observed during the course of acute non fatal pulmonary histoplasmosis acquired in the laboratory. Christie (3) also reports a non fatal non progressive form with mucocutaneous lesions. This subject has been reviewed by Brum *et al* (34).

Broncholiths, Bronchiectasis and Middle Lobe Syndrome It would be expected that with the frequency of calcification so common in histoplasmosis (30% of positive skin test reactors) one might frequently find lesions in the hilar lymph nodes. This may lead with the passage of time to the breakdown of these calcified lymph nodes which discharging into the bronchus produce broncholiths.

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histoplasmosis (36). At other times active histoplasmosis accompanies bronchiectasis with positive sputum and serologic tests. The exact degree to which histoplasmosis is important as a cause of bronchiectasis has not been fully determined.

Another pathological entity of extreme interest is mediastinal fibrosis leading to obstruction of the superior vena cava. This entity has only recently been recognized. It was first reported by Gillespie (37). Miller (38) has reported two cases and has 2 additional cases (39) and one has been seen in Cincinnati hospital while Lt Col Richard R. Tylor at Fitzsimmons Hospital has 7 additional cases (40). This type of disease is characterized by progressive obstruction of the superior vena cava with or without active pulmonary disease. In all of these cases satisfactory pathological evidence of histoplasmosis is demonstrable. However the pathological picture is characterized by development of extensive firm fibrosis which is extremely difficult to handle surgically. Whether this represents chronic infection or whether it is a residual type of disease is unknown but it does appear to be a problem which should be brought to the attention of practitioners. Speaking of the development of fibrosis in this type of infection one cannot help but wonder about the importance of histoplasmosis in chronic pulmonary fibrosis.

The shelling out of infiltrations in histoplasmosis has not been frequently reported. However White *et al* (41) report the occurrence of 3 cases in which cavities developed in nodular lesions. We have seen several cases of this occurrence and one is shown in Fig 11. However it is quite apparent from many reports that the shelling out of nodular lesions is rare in histoplasmosis in marked contrast to coccidioidomycosis.

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THE DIAGNOSIS OF HISTOPLASMOSIS

W D SUTLIFF

The diagnosis of histoplasmosis has become practical and most internists in the area of high endemicity have recognized one or more cases. The greatest strides in the past ten years have been made in the recognition of the clinical manifestations and representative series of various clinical types have been reported with sufficient detail to form the basis for diagnosis. Although definitive etiologic diagnosis of histoplasmosis remains dependent upon specific methods diagnostic procedures such as cultures of *Histoplasma capsulatum* serologic tests and skin tests are no longer considered exceptional or difficult. Only asymptomatic cases or cases with another obvious specific disease such as tuberculosis bronchiectasis sarcoid like or middle lobe syndrome due to *H. capsulatum* are likely to escape recognition today.

The change in our diagnostic capabilities with respect to histoplasmosis is of such recent origin that it may not be out of place to describe some of the steps taken in arriving at the present situation. Histoplasmosis was first described as a rare malignant tropical infection. Isolation of the microorganism was achieved 29 years after its first description. During the first forty years few cases other than those terminating fatally were described. The protean nature of the manifestations of fatal cases led to the recognition and report of one or a few cases at a time. The various clinical types of histoplasmosis were recognized only after groups of cases were collected. Acute disseminated histoplasmosis in its severe form was described first (1). Acute pulmonary histoplasmosis was sought and found after epidemiologic studies showed that such cases probably occurred in large numbers in the endemic areas (2, 3). The symptoms and physical signs of acute pulmonary histoplasmosis were described as a result of surveys of normal populations (4) as a result of the observation of epidemics (5) and as a result of the description of occupational infections in laboratory workers (6). Chronic pul

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- (3) Chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis (usually reinfection)
- (4) Chronic extrapulmonary histoplasmosis (reinfection)
 - a Mucocutaneous
 - b Of endocranium
 - c Of adrenal glands
 - d Of central nervous system
 - e Of other organs or tissues
- (5) Disseminated histoplasmosis (primary or reinfection)

Asymptomatic histoplasmosis refers to cases in which evidence of infection often retrospective is present but in which illness due to histoplasmosis is not recognized. Since 80% of adult populations in areas of high endemicity may be found to react positively to histoplasmin skin tests the number of such asymptomatic cases must be great but they are generally outside the practical interest of either patient or physician. A person who has converted the histoplasmin skin test from negative to a definitely positive reaction can be assumed retrospectively to have experienced a sub-clinical infection with *H. capsulatum*. Likewise a retrospective diagnosis was made in the presence of striking calcific nodules (8) in persons living in an area of high incidence as follows: (1) the primary complex with a comparatively large calcified nodule anywhere in the lung parenchyma and a calcified nodule in the adjacent hilar lymph node sometimes 1 to 4 cm in size with snail shell like convolutions (2) disseminated small rounded military calcified nodules evenly distributed in the lungs (3) similar military calcified nodules in the spleen or (4) comparatively large solitary nodules in the pulmonary parenchyma which were due to inactive histoplasmosis. The retrospective diagnosis of previous asymptomatic infection can be more firmly established following an epidemic when the patient has had opportunity of exposure to a proven source of infection. Data on symptomatic infections in the literature usually concern patients with pulmonary infections but it is assumed because of lesions sometimes found in the gastrointestinal tract in disseminated disease that some part of the asymptomatic infections may also depend upon the gastrointestinal tract as the portal of entry. It should be noted while considering asymptomatic infections that the recognition of splenic calcifications as residual manifestations

monary histoplasmosis had to be distinguished from chronic pulmonary tuberculosis both by exclusion of tuberculosis and by definitive diagnosis of histoplasmosis following surgical excision of lesions and the demonstration of *H. capsulatum* in pulmonary tissue (7). A slow accumulation of individual case reports defined the clinical manifestations of chronic disseminated histoplasmosis and extrapulmonary forms such as the mucocutaneous variety.

NOSOLOGY

As a result of the separate description of the clinical varieties of histoplasmosis their nosology has not been uniform. Physicians describing the disseminated disease used the concept of a spectrum of clinical manifestations for which two extremes were clearly defined such as mild localized disease at one end of the spectrum and severe disseminated disease at the other. Another terminology emphasized mild and severe forms of disease and the presence or absence of progression. Another terminology defined primary and reinfection histoplasmosis as these terms are used for tuberculosis. The author has tended to apply the principle that anatomic location of the lesions together with the acute or chronic character of the course take precedence over other designations. For the purpose of this chapter such a plan has functional advantages in that the first step in diagnosis is the recognition of a group of symptoms and physical signs relating to the anatomic site of involvement and it is on this basis that etiologic studies are then carried out. Accordingly syndromes are emphasized in the plan that is outlined below. The primary or reinfection character of the case is indicated only by additional adjectives as it is determined following the accumulation of complete evidence. Prognostic concepts such as progression are left for separate consideration in each case as they are related more directly to the presence of dissemination or to serious complications. The terminology below is used for the purpose of making diagnosis easier in this chapter and without prejudice to the many other excellent schemes for classifying the clinical types of histoplasmosis as follows:

- (1) Asymptomatic histoplasmosis (primary)
- (2) Acute pulmonary histoplasmosis (usually primary)



Fig 1 Roentgenogram of chest. Acute pulmonary histoplasmosis seventh day. Diffuse mottled infiltrations and moderate hilar lymphadenopathy. (From Kier John H. et al. *JAMA* 155:1230-1239, 1951. Reprinted by permission of author and journal.)

was no history of previous histoplasmosis and no residual pulmonary or lymphatic calcified nodules and specific skin and serologic tests were negative during the first three to four weeks of illness. In a few acute pulmonary cases the evidence indicated reinfection. There was evidence of previous histoplasmosis consisting of a primary complex or other calcific lesions and specific skin and sero

of primary infection usually with concomitant pulmonary residual lesions is evidence that generalization occurs in some asymptomatic infections.

Acute pulmonary histoplasmosis is recognized by symptoms and signs that resemble the course of atypical pneumonia. The history of exposure to infected materials from which *H. capsulatum* has been cultured is sometimes available and aids in the diagnosis. The following sites and activities (9) of patients have been implicated at the point of source of epidemics and may be considered of possible diagnostic significance in the histories of patients: shoveling pigeon excreta at a schoolhouse or in a water tower; gathering chicken manure; cleaning or tearing down a chicken house; working about turkey roosts; cleaning farm buildings; making a wood fire in a storm cellar or in a farmhouse; children playing about a farm or in a hollow tree; digging in soil in the woods to get fish worms or in a cave; sifting garden dirt. It has been postulated following contemplation of this data about the point of source of epidemics that the presence of dusty material in a site that has been alternately damp and dry and is enclosed are features common to many such sources.

Patients with acute pulmonary histoplasmosis became ill with fever, sweats, nonproductive cough and fatigue from 7 to 21 days after exposure. Some of the patients had chills at the onset, burning chest pain and anorexia; some lost weight and were very weak. The symptoms disappeared in from a few days to two weeks in most cases. Roentgenographic pulmonary lesions were often diffuse mottled densities from 1 to 2 cm in diameter uniformly distributed throughout both lung fields. Some had a single or a few infiltrations located in any part of the lung field. All had enlarged hilar lymph nodes, either bilateral or unilateral. The pulmonary changes tended to persist for from one to three months or, in some cases, residual granular thickening of the pulmonary markings was noted. The sites of the lesions tended to calcify after 18 months to three years or longer, both in the lung parenchyma and in the lymph nodes.

The majority of acute pulmonary cases of histoplasmosis described in the literature appeared to be primary infections. There



Fig. 9. Roentgenogram of chest. Chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis 19 months after onset. Bilateral apical fibrocavitary disease. Cavity 4 cm in diameter on right. Multiple cavities 1.5 cm in diameter on the left. Miliary calcified nodules on the right and angular calcified nodules 0.5 cm in diameter in hilum and in lesser on the left. Left hilum displaced upwards.

remarkable in that little extrapulmonary involvement was found in cases of chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis. *H. capsulatum* was present in large numbers and was readily isolated from the sputum of cases with chronic fibrocavitary histoplasmosis. Serologic tests and histoplasmin skin tests were positive with very few exceptions.

Confirmation of the diagnosis of chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis was unsatisfactory in from one half to two thirds of the cases

logic tests were positive when first performed. In such cases the pulmonary lesions were apt to be small and sharply demarcated, sometimes military in appearance and without hilar lymphadenopathy.

Acute pulmonary histoplasmosis cases, both primary and reinfection, had a good prognosis.

Collection and culture of material to which the patient was exposed was often of value in identifying *H. capsulatum* as the etiologic agent (see under "exposure" below). Sputum, gastric washings, bone marrow, or biopsied lymph nodes, especially if obtained early in the course of the symptomatic disease, were only occasionally the source of confirmatory positive cultures.

Chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis was recognized more frequently in hospitalized adults than other clinical forms of histoplasmosis. The following, thumbnail description of chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis was based upon a series of cases with fibrocavitary lesions diagnosed with the aid of positive cultures of *H. capsulatum* (10). The disease occurred most often among farmers. It began insidiously, or with symptoms of pharyngitis or pneumonia, usually with fever. The course was chronic, with chronic cough, mucopurulent sputum, weight loss, chest pain, weakness, and fatigue as the principal symptoms. Roentgenology showed the lesions were nearly always in the apical portion of one or both lung fields. Marked fibrosis of the pulmonary lesions led to displacement of the trachea and hilar structures toward the areas of maximal involvement. Cavities were demonstrable, often multiple and small in size, sometimes large and thin-walled, resembling bullae. Acute or chronic complicating pulmonary infections associated with the presence of bacteria, such as *Klebsiella pneumoniae* or *Micrococcus pyogenes aureus*, were observed, as well as pulmonary tuberculosis. The most frequent complications were emphysema and fibrosis associated with dyspnea on exertion. The course tended to be stable in over half the cases. An unfavorable outcome was usually associated with complications, such as infected pulmonary bullae, emphysema, etc., but not with active spread of histoplasmosis. Likewise repeated observations, such as bone marrow and lymph node cultures and postmortem studies, were

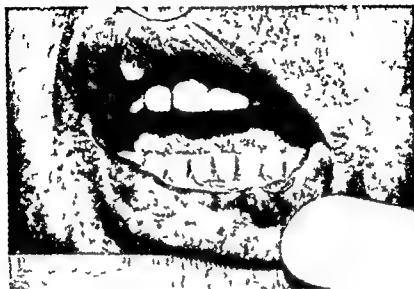


Fig 3 Chronic disseminated histoplasmosis. Mucocutaneous papulo-ulcerative lesions of lips. Liver, spleen, bone marrow and adrenal glands also involved.

In mucocutaneous histoplasmosis (11) the principal sites of involvement were the oral cavity, the lips, the faucial pillars, the tonsils, the pharynx, the tongue, the buccal mucosa, the larynx, and the skin where ulcers or nodules were seen. The lesions tended not to be tender but developed as papules and ulcerated, leaving a firm margin without cellulitis or secondary bacterial infection. In some cases marked involvement of the regional lymph nodes simulated lymphadenitis due to tuberculosis, Hodgkin's disease, lymphoma, or sarcoid.

In endocardial histoplasmosis (12) the signs of changing murmurs, high intermittent fever, emboli, hematuria, clubbing of the fingers, anemia, or splenomegaly dominated the picture as described in 7 of 10 cases by Merchant. Valves involved in 10 cases were: aortic 5, tricuspid 3, mitral 1, and mitral and aortic 1.

Histoplasmosis of the adrenal gland (13) reproduced exactly the symptoms of Addison's disease due to the complete destruction or replacement of the gland by a caseous mass. Such patients were apt to have some lesions of mucocutaneous histoplasmosis, but it

because sputums and other materials submitted for cultures were persistently negative and bronchoscopic specimens and bronchoscopic observations and bronchograms disclosed no confirmatory information and no reasonable diagnostic alternative. In such cases it was necessary to consider the diagnosis less well established than in cases with positive cultures. The term presumptive was added to the diagnosis of chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis when examination was thorough and was negative for other conditions.

Other chronic pulmonary lesions were less common and generated different sets of symptoms and x-ray findings. Pleural effusions due to *H. capsulatum* were rare. The histoplasmaoma, a coin lesion: usually with stippled or central nodular or concentric rings of calcific material occurring in any part of the lung was sometimes asymptomatic but was often studied thoroughly to rule out neoplasm. Histoplasmosis of the mediastinal lymph nodes with mediastinitis was sometimes sufficiently extensive to produce obstruction of the superior vena cava. Histoplasmosis of the lymph nodes adjacent to the major bronchi also tended to produce obstruction which was reported more commonly to affect the right middle lobe with the production of middle lobe syndrome and in some cases bronchiectasis. Specimens of excised pulmonary lesions or infected lymph nodes were usually necessary for the definitive diagnosis through the demonstration of *H. capsulatum* in these forms of chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis.

Nearly all patients with chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis lived and worked under conditions of repeated exposure to possible sites of infection usually about farms. Most did not recall any one heavy exposure before the onset and in some cases the onset was so gradual that it could not be precisely dated. It seems reasonable to suppose that endogenous reinfection was often the cause of chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis. However no definite conclusion as to the occurrence of endogenous or exogenous reinfection was usually possible in individual cases.

Extrapulmonary histoplasmosis was occasionally localized in one or a few organs or sites namely mucous membranes or skin endocardium adrenal gland meninges etc. The symptoms were those related to the site of the lesion.

1915. Following 1915 a larger proportion of the reported cases of all types were reported annuallly as recovering from histoplasmosis. Such recoveries were more frequent in adults and were apt to be associated with less acute and less extensive dissemination. The prognosis was related to the acuteness of the symptoms and to the degree of dissemination.

When the gastrointestinal tract (16) was involved the jejunum, cecum and colon were involved in disseminated histoplasmosis and diarrhea, melena, anorexia, nausea and vomiting some times dominated the clinical picture. Shull (16) described involvement of the small bowel, large bowel or liver in 16 out of 21 cases coming to postmortem in Nashville, Tennessee. Ulcers with a firm base and margin were present in or about the anus or were visible on proctoscopy. In some cases broad flat papules were described in normal bowel mucosa in some of which ulcers developed. One case of fatal hemorrhage from a duodenal ulcer with active lesions of histoplasmosis was described occurring during the course of disseminated histoplasmosis.

Bone marrow specimens were the most profitable source for demonstration of H. capsulatum in disseminated histoplasmosis. Microscopic examination and culture of lesions were also productive such as lymph nodes, liver, spleen, lung, mucocutaneous lesions. The stools, sputum or blood were also positive in some cases.

AGE, SEX, RACE

Cases of histoplasmosis occurred at all ages. There was a relatively high incidence of the disseminated form of the disease in the first year of life which equalled that in any other decade. Incidence was again high in the fifth and sixth decades. Up to the age of ten there was no sex difference but after puberty males predominated. Conversion of skin reaction to positive occurred most frequently from age four through age eighteen in endemic areas. No racial predisposition was reported.

appears possible that some of the cases of adrenocortical insufficiency without apparent complicating lesions of either tuberculosis or histoplasmosis may have had histoplasmosis and the relative proportion has not been determined. It was recommended that cases of Addison's disease should be examined both for tuberculosis and histoplasmosis.

Central nervous system infection (14) was reported as dominating the clinical picture in a case of histoplasmosis.

The occurrence of constrictive pericarditis (15) in patients with no evidence of tuberculosis but with positive skin tests for histoplasmosis led to the discussion of the possibility that histoplasmosis was the initial cause of chronic constrictive pericarditis in some of the patients in whom evidence for other etiology was lacking.

Specimens obtained by biopsy from lesions or blood specimens in the case of endocarditis were necessary for definitive diagnosis through demonstration of *H. capsulatum*.

Disseminated histoplasmosis varies from a mild to a severe acute or chronic disease. The acute generalized forms occurred mostly in children and involved the liver and spleen and bone marrow as well as other organs and tissues. The general symptoms as described by Parsons and Tarfonetis in 1915 were low and irregular or moderate fever present in 95% of the cases, loss of weight in 40% with emaciation in 30%, moderate to severe anemia of the hypochromic type in about 90%, palpable liver and spleen in 75 to 80%, lymphadenopathy in 70%, leukopenia in 60%, albuminuria in 60% and lesions in the lungs in 60%. Roentgenology of the lungs was negative during life in two thirds of the disseminated cases. Dense massive involvement or diffuse mottled densities predominated. Symptoms referable to the gastrointestinal tract occurred in 25%, ulcerative lesions of the oropharynx in 30% of the skin in 15% and lesions of the larynx in 15%. The endocardium, the adrenals and central nervous system were less often involved. The disease when generalized had a duration of from a few weeks to six to eight months; the course was usually shorter in young children. As stated above the fatality rate in disseminated histoplasmosis was about 100% in cases reported from 1905 through

growth. It grew well at room temperature on blood agar plates prepared with the addition of penicillin and streptomycin to control bacterial contamination. Collection of material such as soil from the environment of patients in which the microorganism was present in the form of spores and mycelial growth did not require fresh specimens but the culture required special methods in which mouse inoculation provided the most favorable medium. Microscopic examination was best carried out on exudates with the aid of Giemsa, Wright or Wilson staining methods. *H. capsulatum* in biologic material appeared as a yeast from 2 to 5 microns in diameter with scattered irregular masses of nuclear protoplasm. The yeast cells were packed in clumps within phagocytic cells but were also free in the purulent exudate. Growth in the incubator was yeast like without the production of mycelium or spores. At room temperature the growth was mycelial with the production of typical tuberculate chlamydospores. The demonstration of these characteristic structures was the object of all culture methods since they were diagnostic of the organism.

Biopsies made for the differentiation of granulomatous and neoplastic disease were often the source of definitive evidence of histoplasmosis. Surgeons and pathologists learned to routinely split biopsy specimens into equal sized and equally representative specimens and carry out full etiologic studies by culture and appropriate histologic technique applied to separate parts of the tissue. Although the microorganisms were sometimes readily observed with hematoxylin eosin stains, special periodic acid stains or silver impregnation methods were more apt to disclose the presence of *H. capsulatum* in tissue section. Cultures were sometimes positive in tissues in which the microorganism was not demonstrated microscopically and conversely microorganisms resembling *H. capsulatum* were sometimes observed that were not viable in culture. Both histologic and culture methods were therefore needed for the maximum number of positive results. Under some circumstances the appearance of *H. capsulatum* was atypical in that large forms appeared similar to tissue forms of *Blastomyces dermatitidis*, *Coccidioides immitis* or *Cryptococcus neoformans*. At other times the small forms of these three systemic mycoses resembled the usual

EXPOSURE

History of exposure in a characteristic site or occupation was sometimes of value in diagnosis of acute pulmonary or acute disseminated histoplasmosis. History of residence in an area of high endemicity was also sometimes of value. Skin test surveys and tabulation of the location of cases and epidemics of cases of histoplasmosis delineated clearly a number of areas of relatively high incidence (17). In North America the whole Mississippi Valley was one of these as was the St. Lawrence River Valley and a portion of the State of Virginia in the Southeast and North Carolina in the Northwest. Other areas of high incidence were most parts of Latin America and Southeast Asia and Indonesia. A case of histoplasmosis seen in areas of lower prevalence was frequently associated with previous residence in one of these areas of high incidence. There were small areas outside these locations however apparently scattered throughout the world where the infection could be contracted. A history of residence in an area of high endemicity suggested the diagnosis of histoplasmosis but the absence of such history would not rule out histoplasmosis.

DEMONSTRATION OF *H. CAPSULATUM*

The demonstration of the microorganism was the most valuable single evidence of the presence of histoplasmosis. No circumstances in which *H. capsulatum* existed as an incidental contaminant in man have been described and it is reasonable to consider it to be a pathogen whenever it is recovered from human secretions or tissues. Secretions, exudates, body fluids and tissues for examination for *H. capsulatum* should be fresh if possible and in ample amount. If necessary the antibiotics penicillin, streptomycin, cyclohexamide should be added to suppress excessive growth of bacteria or saprophytic fungi. The rapid disappearance of *H. capsulatum* from sputum specimens described by Kurung may be minimized by refrigeration. Tissues for culture should be thoroughly ground in a Ten Broeck homogenizer or other similar instrument. The microorganism was not fastidious but occasionally required inoculation on a series of plates for initiation of

SEROLOGIC REACTIONS

The general association of positive serologic reactions with the course of active infection with *H. capsulatum* was clearly demonstrated (18). Serologic tests such as the complement fixation with yeast phase antigen became positive in the third week of acute primary histoplasmosis and remained positive during the whole period of activity. In a few cases these tests remained positive for years although clinical activity was slight or absent. The tests were apt to become negative in the terminal stage of acute disseminated infections or in chronic well localized disease. The value of the serologic test as a screening procedure was studied. From 3 to 7% of cases (19) hospitalized in pulmonary disease hospitals were found to have positive serologic tests using yeast phase antigen and subsequent confirmation was obtained by culture in about 1%. The antigens were not standardized nor manufactured for general use and serologic testing was thus limited by the variability of suitable antigens. The tests when available offered a means for tentatively confirming the presence of histoplasmosis in cases where other methods were not available. They were found most valuable in the diagnosis of some cases of acute pulmonary histoplasmosis or in presumptive / chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis where positive cultures were not obtained.

The differential diagnosis of histoplasmosis was dependent upon the isolation of *H. capsulatum* or its recognition by microscopy. Other specific methods such as skin tests and serologic reaction were sometimes valuable. The following list of medical conditions were simulated by acute pulmonary histoplasmosis: primary atypical pneumonia, psittacosis, Q fever, influenza and bacterial pneumonia. Chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis simulated other systemic fungus diseases, benign or malignant primary or metastatic tumors, chronic lung abscess, bacterial pneumonia especially *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, bronchiectasis and hamartoma. Chronic extrapulmonary histoplasmosis simulated carcinoma of the oral cavity, bacterial endocarditis and other conditions corresponding to other sites of localization. Disseminated histoplasmosis simulated other systemic causes of fever such as bacteremia, brucellosis and neoplastic disease.

H. capsulatum microorganisms. Since both the pathologic lesions and the microorganisms resembled one another, cultures were always necessary to confirm the specific strain of fungus. Cultures with the resulting identification of characteristic tuberculate chlamydospores when successful was considered the most specific method for the identification of *H. capsulatum*.

Skin tests using histoplasmin which had been standardized by comparison with a sample of standard potency were most valuable in areas of high incidence of histoplasmosis when they were negative and therefore tended to exclude the diagnosis of histoplasmosis. In areas of low incidence the positive skin test was of more affirmative value. The test had to be carried out with due attention to the avoidance of technical pitfalls and when thus performed the interpretation of the positive test was self-evident. Syringes and needles for histoplasmin skin tests should not be used for other skin test material such as PPD. It was necessary to insure solution of the dried histoplasmin by inverting the vial to avoid any mixing with alcohol used for antiseptics to make a perfect intracutaneous injection rather than subcutaneous and to avoid or at least observe and report injections from which the fluid leaked. Since most technical errors led to false negative tests careful repetition of unexpected negative tests was often indicated. Reading of tests in millimeters of diameter of the induration at the 48th hour was recommended. Within the first two to three weeks in primary histoplasmosis the skin test was negative and eventually in the disseminated disease no reaction was elicited. The test was reported negative in a moderate number of chronic pulmonary or disseminated cases. Under most circumstances, however, a positive skin test reaction to histoplasmin was present in patients with an infection with *H. capsulatum* either active or inactive. It was noted that there was a tendency for cross reaction of histoplasmin positive patients to *H. dermatitidis* antigens and occasionally to coccidioidin but not as far as known with cases in which reactions to the purified protein derivative of the tubercle bacillus were positive. The dilutions of fungal antigens used for skin tests were chosen so that they manifested the least possible amount of cross reactions and the larger of any two conflicting tests were the more significant.

nodules and showed discrete epithelioid tubercles Schramm bodies and asteroid bodies. The distribution of the lesions in lymph nodes spleen liver and lungs was similar. Other examinations gave similar results negative PPD skin tests and reversed albumin globulin ratio. In some cases the observers concluded that the patient had sarcoidosis with a secondary infection by *H. capsulatum*. In the majority of cases in which *H. capsulatum* was demonstrated however the patients ran the course of disseminated histoplasmosis and the extent and character of the lesions indicated that the whole picture was based on *H. capsulatum* infection. Israel (20) in his exhaustive study of the subject concluded that few cases of histoplasmosis simulated sarcoidosis and that histoplasmosis like tuberculosis needed to be considered as one of the forms of granulomatous disease to be excluded before a definite diagnosis of sarcoidosis was made. He recommended the use of skin tests biopsy with histologic examination and cultures and serologic tests for histoplasmosis in all cases of sarcoidosis.

Disseminated histoplasmosis sometimes occurred as a terminal complication in the presence of lymphomas (21). The lymphadenopathy and other lesions such as hepatosplenomegaly and ulcers particularly in the oral mucosa made the recognition of a complicating disseminated histoplasmosis difficult. Other fungus infections some the result of the invasion of fungi that were usually nonpathogenic were also found in patients with lymphomas suggesting that lymphomas under treatment with potent modern remedies including antibiotics steroids and anti-neoplastic therapeutic agents were more susceptible to the dissemination of fungus infections. Cultures and microscopic examination of the lesions and the tissues removed in the case of lymphoma should always be made with the possibility of fungus infection in mind.

In summary histoplasmosis was most frequently diagnosed following the recognition of certain clinical syndromes as follows: acute pulmonary histoplasmosis was suggested by atypical pneumonia especially if the x-ray showed diffuse mottled infiltrations and hilar lymphadenopathy in patients with exposure to a rural environment or a dusty enclosed place. Retrospective diagnosis of acute pulmonary histoplasmosis was made by observation of multi-

Three conditions namely tuberculosis sarcoidosis and lymphomas were simulated by or complicated by histoplasmosis and were the subject of special studies

Chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis resembled chronic pulmonary tuberculosis but certain manifestations were more prominent in histoplasmosis than in tuberculosis. Paraphrasing a popular song: Anything tuberculosis can do histoplasmosis can do better. Histoplasmosis was more frequent than tuberculosis in the areas of high endemicity. Calcification fibrosis necrosis and cavitation with resulting distortion of the pulmonary architecture were more pronounced in histoplasmosis. Chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis was less apt to progress than tuberculosis. Histoplasmosis cases were often seen to develop a stable state of ill health persisting for years without local or general spread of the infection and to suffer more from pulmonary insufficiency than from active disease. Since the differences were only differences of degree they were seldom of diagnostic value although they often served to raise the question of the presence of histoplasmosis. The military pulmonary lesions of acute pulmonary histoplasmosis differed from military tuberculosis in their benign course and lack of response to antituberculous therapy. Disseminated histoplasmosis was similar to hematogenous tuberculosis. Because of the much greater incidence of tuberculosis it was necessary to consider the possibility of tuberculosis first. If tuberculosis could be ruled out by repeated negative cultures of suitable sputum samples or negative Mantoux tests in patients living in an endemic area the presence of histoplasmosis was considered probable. Histoplasmosis could be suspected however whenever clinical manifestations resembled those described above when tuberculosis could not be definitely confirmed by positive cultures when calcification fibrosis necrosis or cavitation were striking and when the response to antituberculous therapy was incomplete. In some cases the diseases coexisted and both required specific confirmation by culture.

It was not unusual for diagnostic problems to arise in the differentiation of disseminated histoplasmosis and sarcoidosis. The granulomatous lesions of histoplasmosis when they were devoid of necrotic caseous degeneration duplicated the appearance of sarcoid

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ple small calcified pulmonary nodules or single large pulmonary or hilar lymph node calcifications or splenic calcifications in patients with positive skin tests to histoplasmin. Chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis was suggested by apical fibrocavitary lesions and a chronic stable course in an adult male over forty usually without evidence of active tuberculosis and usually readily confirmed by the presence of *H. capsulatum* in the sputum. Single nodular (coin) lesions removed surgically were also often due to *H. capsulatum* infection. Chronic extrapulmonary histoplasmosis was manifested by mucocutaneous granulomatous papules or ulcers or other localized lesions in the endocardium central nervous system adrenals etc. Disseminated histoplasmosis was suggested by fever hepatosplenomegaly lymphadenopathy and leukopenia in infants and children and by multiple lesions mucocutaneous nodules or ulcers hepatosplenomegaly lymphadenopathy enterocolitis meningitis or signs of adrenocortical insufficiency in adult males. Because of a similarity of histoplasmosis to tuberculosis in its various forms especially the chronic pulmonary disease tuberculosis is the first tentative diagnosis in many cases and histoplasmosis is recognized only after specific evidence for tuberculosis is found to be absent or equivocal. Definitive diagnosis of histoplasmosis is based upon demonstration of *H. capsulatum* usually from the environment in acute pulmonary histoplasmosis from the sputum in chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis and from the bone marrow or histoplasmosis lesions in disseminated histoplasmosis.

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from tuberculosis should also be considered. Demonstration of the etiologic agent visually by culture or by animal inoculation is the only criterion available for a definite diagnosis. Properly evaluated immunologic tests however often establish the diagnosis with a reasonable degree of certainty. The diagnosis of histoplasmosis in its various forms is being made with increasing frequency but it is probable that the great majority of cases even when clinical symptoms are present still escape detection. The number of cases diagnosed in any particular area is directly proportional to the degree of interest in the disease and often reflects the enthusiasm of some particular individual or group of investigators.

Finally it may be said that the differential diagnosis of histoplasmosis is complex, multifaceted, somewhat controversial, difficult and in some instances impossible. Its importance to the patient however from the standpoint of medical and surgical treatment fully justifies the vigorous attempts which are being made in many medical centers to achieve greater accuracy.

PULMONARY HISTOPLASMOSIS

The differential diagnosis of pulmonary histoplasmosis varies considerably with the type of infection and with the degree of severity. Table I reproduced from a recent publication by Baum and Schwarz (2) suggests a way in which some of the various clinical manifestations of the disease may be interrelated pathogenetically.

Asymptomatic disseminated pulmonary calcification in the mid western and south central United States is in the majority of instances associated with a positive histoplasmin test and negative tuberculin test (5). Occasionally single large calcified nodules in the lung with calcified tracheobronchial lymph nodes likewise appear on the basis of immunologic tests to be of histoplasmic origin (6). Healed histoplasmosis with calcification must therefore be differentiated from healed tuberculosis as well as from the calcified lesions of healed coccidiomycosis and other fungal infections. This can be done only by the use of immunologic tests together with other available data.

The milder cases of primary pulmonary histoplasmosis tend to

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

HENRY PINKERTON

INTRODUCTION

PREVIOUS to 1945 histoplasmosis was rarely diagnosed during life and our concepts of the disease were based largely on clinicopathological studies of fatal cases. These studies showed that its clinical manifestations were remarkably protean and could mimic primary disease of many different organs.

With the advent of immunologic and cultural diagnostic methods it has become clear that a fatal outcome is relatively uncommon while asymptomatic infection may occur in 90% of those living in certain geographical areas (1). Non fatal infections of all degrees of severity are being recognized with increasing frequency (2). This broadening of the clinical spectrum of the disease has further increased the number of conditions which must be considered in its differential diagnosis.

In 1945 Parsons and Ziarfonetis (3) analyzed 56 cases of histoplasmosis in 40 of which there was generalized involvement and found reports of pulmonary involvement in only 34 instances. In non disseminated cases however lesions are confined largely to the lungs. In general the pathogenetic mechanisms, methods of spread, clinical vagaries, time tables and pathologic sequences of histoplasmosis are rather strikingly similar to those previously established for tuberculosis and later for coccidiomycosis. This parallelism extends even to such basic concepts as primary and secondary infection (4), the interrelationship of allergy and immunity and other complex and incompletely understood aspects of the host-parasite relationship in chronic recrudescant infections.

In the differential diagnosis of histoplasmosis tuberculosis must be given primary consideration since identical clinical and radiological pictures may be found in both conditions. From this it follows that most of those diseases which must be differentiated

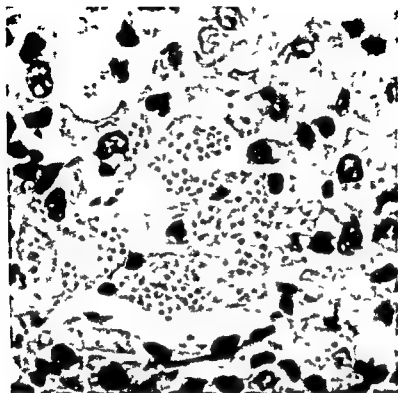
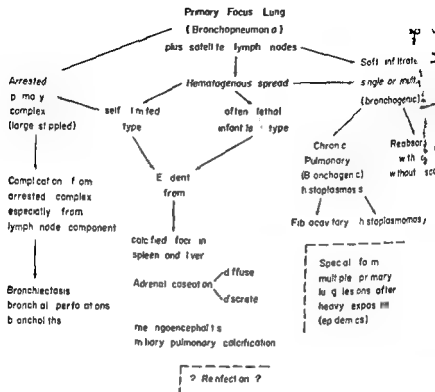


Fig. 1. Histoplasma capsule in adrenal epithelial cell adjacent to an area of caseation necrosis. Note the unstained capsule and the presence of signet ring forms. In a few organisms the central portion is uniformly stained.

test leads to a strong, presumptive diagnosis of tuberculosis. Conversely, a negative tuberculin test with a positive histoplasmin test suggests histoplasmosis, particularly if geographic and other environmental factors harmonize with this diagnosis. Conversion of either test from negative to positive with the occurrence of the pulmonary infiltration greatly strengthens the diagnosis. When both tests are positive, the patient should be studied by all available means; occasionally a favorable response to chemotherapeutic agents routinely employed for tuberculosis may be the only specific evidence for making the latter diagnosis. The decreasing percentage of tuberculin reactors among the general population in recent

TABLE I



(Reproduced from New England Journal of Medicine by permission)

occur in epidemic form. Radiologic findings may be negative and these cases resemble influenza and other respiratory infections (7). Since their recognition depends on cultural or immunologic tests particularly the complement fixation test (when performed at the proper time and in proper dilution) it is probable that the majority of these cases remain undiagnosed. In the somewhat more severe cases positive roentgenologic findings include single or multiple areas of soft infiltrations enlarged tracheobronchial lymph nodes patchy areas resembling pneumonic infiltration and diffuse radiating infiltrations resembling those of sarcoidosis.

In cases with areas of soft infiltration shown radiologically and with negative sputum examinations immunologic tests are of great importance. A positive tuberculin test with a negative histoplasmin

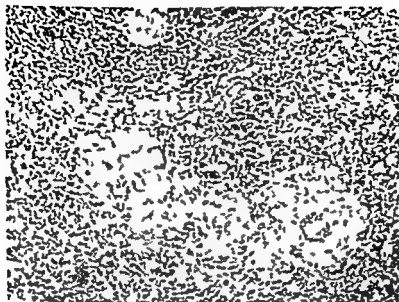


Fig. 3. Non-casuous tubercle-like lesions with central giant cells in spleen. No organisms were found in these lesions.

least in the mid western United States 3 to 7% of the patients have histoplasmosis without demonstrable acid fast infection. In addition to these some patients have a mixed infection with the tubercle bacillus and the fungus. The cases of pure histoplasmosis are discovered by studying carefully those patients who in spite of a completely typical clinical and radiologic picture have never had sputums positive for *M. tuberculosis*. The importance of these data is readily appreciated when one considers that antibiotic agents which are effective against *M. tuberculosis* are ineffective and potentially harmful in mycotic infections.

Chronic progressive cavity histoplasmosis cannot be differentiated from tuberculosis by clinical or radiologic findings (2, 8) diagnosis must depend on positive histoplasmin or other immunologic tests and the demonstration (by culture and animal inoculation) of the etiologic agent in the sputum (or other gastric washings). In febrile cases which eventually recover the organisms may be found temporarily in the blood or bone marrow (9). Often the

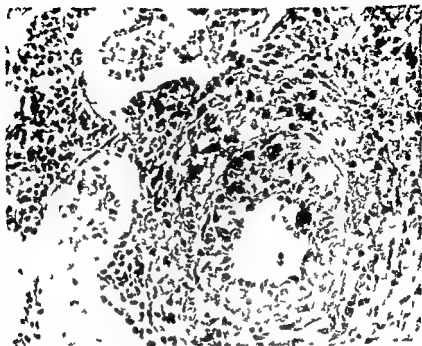


Fig. 2 Invasion of the wall of an artery in the lung by *Histoplasma*. The organisms which appear as small rounded dots are intracellular in position.

years has greatly increased the significance of a positive tuberculin test (except in the aged and underprivileged)

Frequently the *cases of moderate severity* must be distinguished from viral pneumonia and primary atypical pneumonia and it follows that they must also be distinguished from ornithosis, Q fever and toxoplasmosis. This can be done only by utilizing available diagnostic methods. Acute diffuse interstitial fibrosis of the lungs (Hamman and Rich), beryllium pneumonitis, pulmonary alveolar proteinosis and alveolar cell carcinoma may also simulate diffuse histoplasmosis. In a few cases middle lobe syndrome has resulted from the pressure of histoplasmic tracheobronchial lymphadenitis.

Cases with prolonged or intermittent fever accompanied by radiologic evidence of definite pulmonary involvement are most often confused with pulmonary tuberculosis. A number of careful studies have shown that in nearly all tuberculosis sanatoriums at

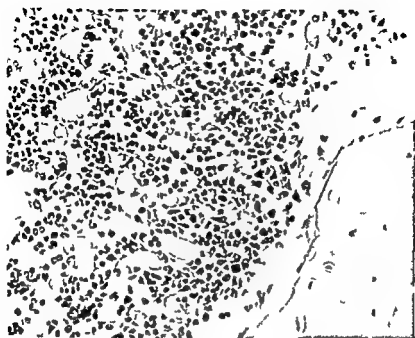


FIG. 5 From a section of bone marrow in a case of generalized infection. The marrow consists largely of histiocytes laden with phagocytized *Histoplasma capsulatum* and undifferentiated cells.

lesion diagnostic segmental resection is carried out without delay (10). Several studies indicate that roughly half of these coin lesions turn out to be tumors (primary or metastatic carcinoma for the most part) while the other half are granulomatous lesions (10). In about half of these granulomatous lesions the etiologic agent is identified by culture or by special staining methods. The recognized etiologic agents include *M. tuberculosis*, *Histoplasma capsulatum*, *Coccidioides immitis*, *Histomyces dermatitidis*, *Nocardia* and *Cryptococcus neoformans*. *Histoplasma capsulatum* is of course particularly common in the mid western United States and geographical factors as well as the results of immunologic tests should always be considered in the preliminary differential diagnosis. In the remaining half of the granulomatous lesions no specified etiologic agent is discovered; many of these may represent healed mycotic infec-



Fig. 4. A large pseudo tubercle in the liver composed of epithelioid cells with a peripheral collar of lymphocytes. No giant cells are present and organisms were not found in the liver.

diagnosis is not made until the segment of lung tissue involved has been removed surgically and studied microscopically and by cultural methods. In cases where both tubercle bacilli and fungi are present it is often impossible to decide which agent first gained entry to the lung tissue and which one played the more important role. Chronic cystic disease of the lungs and *Klebsiella* infection with cavitation were the original diagnosis in 2 reported cases. Fungal infections other than histoplasmosis, bronchiectasis and silicosis may also cause cavitation.

The Coin Lesion. A significant contribution to our knowledge of histoplasmosis of the lungs has been made by the pulmonary surgeons. Watchful waiting is currently frowned upon for patients who show radiologic evidence of an unexplained round or coin

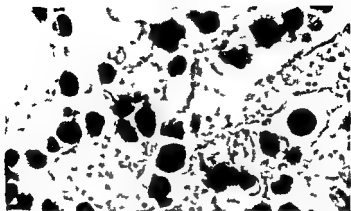


Fig 7 High power of lymph node showing organisms in swollen reticulum cells

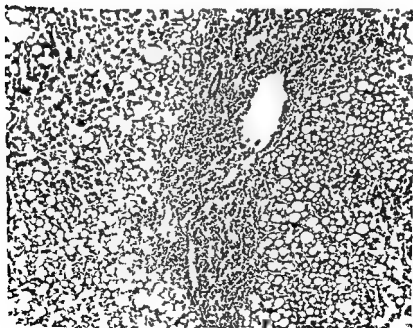


Fig 8 Portal lymphocytic infiltration giving picture of lymphatic leukemia in a case with massive bone marrow involvement

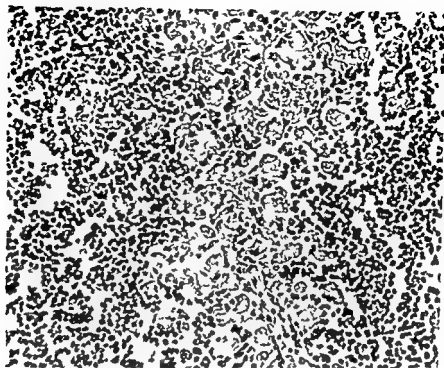


Fig 6 Low power appearance of a greatly enlarged lymph node showing many pale *Histoplasma* laden cells of reticuloendothelial origin

tions with disappearance of the organisms. Some of the common lesions turn out to be lipoid pneumonia (usually from mineral oil aspiration) unresolved pneumonia, silico tuberculosis, infarcts, benign pulmonary tumors, etc.

Recent studies (11, 12) indicate that the Crocott stain, a modification of the methenamine silver nitrate technique of Gomori, is much more effective than PAS methods for demonstrating fungi in resected solitary granulomas. In a re-study of 26 cases previously diagnosed as granulomas of undetermined origin, Creendyke and Emerson (11) found histoplasma in 20 cases. These studies were made in a non-endemic area. Of the 20 cases, 13 were asymptomatic and discovered by routine outpatient chest films or incidentally to hospitalization for other reasons.

Schulz *et al* (12) studied 44 granulomatous lesions resected without pre-operative diagnosis. Eighteen were proven to be



Fig 10 Flask shaped ulcer in the colon in a case of the intestinal type

example) should also be given due weight. Only when all of these factors have been evaluated can we consider that a coin lesion is unexplained. In a young person who does not smoke and whose lesion shows calcification, resection is probably inadvisable (12).

Looking at the problem broadly, it is clear (although statistical studies rarely face this problem squarely) that at least 10% of surgically resected coin lesions are so innocuous that the surgeon is made temporarily unhappy by the pathological report. His thoughts soon turn, however, to previous and apparently identical cases in which the report showed operable pulmonary carcinoma, and he does his own mental mathematics, even though the rules for this type of mathematics have not been rigidly formulated. The ideal of coin lesion resection without regrets will for sometime remain unattainable, but in the meantime every possible effort

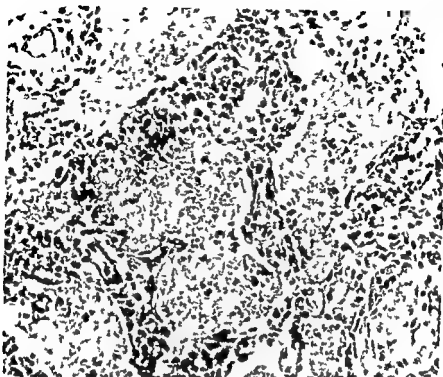


Fig. 9 Interstitial pneumonitis in systemic histoplasmosis. Late phagocytic cells laden with organisms crowd the alveolar walls and lie free within alveoli.

tuberculosis 22 fungal infection (of which 16 were histoplasmosis) 2 sarcoidosis 2 eosinophilic granuloma in 1 cases the etiologic agent was not determined.

Few would disagree with the generally held belief that unexplained round or coin lesions should be resected. It would seem wise however to treat each case as an individual problem to use all available laboratory tests including cytological study of the sputum for malignant cells and to take into consideration such factors as age sex geographical data (particularly recent migration from a non endemic to an endemic area) history of recent or past pneumonia in the patient and in other members of his family and exposure to dried chicken manure silo dust cave dust decayed wood or other possible sources of spore inhalation. The possibility of aspiration pneumonia (during an episode of vomiting for



Fig 19 Lymph node with histoplasmosis. Necrosis and calcium deposition is shown. Many organisms are still present.

diagnosis is that of any subacute illness associated with fever, splenomegaly, hepatomegaly, lymph node enlargement, anemia, leucopenia, anorexia and loss of weight (13). Diagnosis can be made by demonstrating the highly characteristic fungi in the blood, bone marrow, or biopsy material from lymph nodes, liver, etc. Immunologic tests are of relatively little value in acute fulminating systemic histoplasmosis. Lethal disseminated infection is more common in children than in the older age groups.

LOCALIZED HISTOPLASMOSIS

Although chronic focal histoplasmosis is most common in the lungs, it may occur in practically any organ or tissue in the body and may mimic primary disease of many different organs (13). In its manifold focal forms, it is usually difficult and often impossible to establish the diagnosis, but certain important points should be kept in mind.

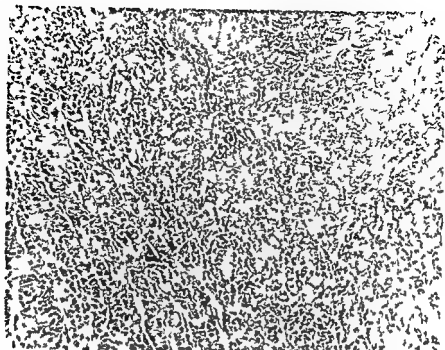


Fig. 11 Caseation necrosis in the adrenal. Complete necrosis in upper right corner and essentially normal adrenal tissue in lower left corner.

should be made to improve diagnostic accuracy and to establish broad policies on the democratic basis of free discussion.

GENERALIZED HISTOPLASMOSIS

Histoplasma organisms may be found in the circulating blood or bone marrow in cases of pulmonary histoplasmosis which end with complete clinical recovery. Mycethemia then does not necessarily indicate that disseminated lesions will occur but gives a clue to the occurrence of the acute fulminating form of the disease as well as the more chronic but progressive types in which one or more organs are conspicuously involved by necrotizing lesions.

Generalized or systemic histoplasmosis may occur terminally in patients who have had localizing signs such as pulmonary consolidation, diarrhea, naso-oral lesions or cardiac murmurs. It may also occur without localizing signs in which case the differential

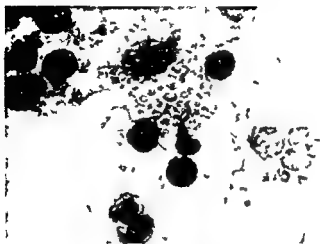


Fig. 11. Another infected cell from same preparation as that used for Fig. 13.

media only by demonstrating the presence of the characteristic intracellular organisms.

Cases of *ocular involvement* simulate tuberculosis and other granulomatous infections so closely that they are rarely diagnosed except in cases of enucleation in which the organisms are readily seen in sections.

Vegetative endocarditis is rarely caused by *H. capsulatum* (15). It should be suspected when routine blood cultures are negative for the common bacterial agents and may usually be diagnosed by suitable cultural techniques.

Ulcerative Enteritis. Here again differentiation of the histoplasmic type from other more common types depends first on thinking of the possibility and secondly on visualizing or culturing the etiologic fungus. Histoplasma laden macrophages have been mistaken for erythrocyte laden amoebae (16).

Cerebral histoplasmosis is relatively common in the disseminated form of the disease (17). It may take the form of a localized lesion (histoplasmatoma) or may occur as mild or severe meningitis. In rare cases it has been established as the cause of acute meningitis by finding organisms in the spinal fluid.

Adrenal involvement is very common. Massive caseous necrosis

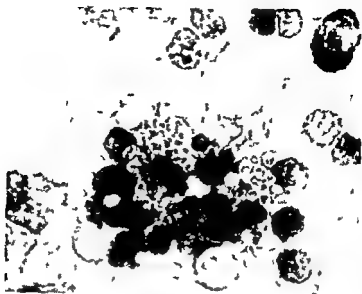


Fig. 13 Film preparation from sternum marrow puncture. Giemsa stain. Two cells containing organisms are shown.

Cutaneous and mucocutaneous histoplasmosis must be differentiated from leishmaniasis as well as from other fungal infections (14). This can be done only by identifying the causative organism.

Naso oral type. Moore and Jorstad (14) have emphasized the fact that histoplasmosis of the naso oral cavity may simulate rhinoscleroma, laryngeal tuberculosis, leukemic leukemia, lymphoma, leishmaniasis, nasal blastomycosis and syphilis. There is usually little difficulty in establishing the diagnosis by demonstrating the specific organisms.

Of particular importance is the differentiation from squamous cell carcinoma, especially when nodular and ulcerative lesions of the tongue are present. These lingual lesions often simulate carcinoma not only grossly but to some extent microscopically, because of atypical epithelial proliferation in the overlying epidermis. In studying doubtful biopsy specimens, pathologists have learned to look carefully for fungi in sections specially stained by the PAS and Crocott silver methods.

The otitic type can be differentiated from other types of otitis

In a fatal case (case A) reported by Parsons and Zimmonetis (3) numerous tubercle bacilli were present in the walls of a pulmonary cavity and in the kidneys. The caseous adrenal glands and the glossal pharyngeal and colonic ulcers contained histoplasma organisms without tubercle bacilli while the widespread military tubercles in the liver spleen pituitary thyroid tongue pharynx lungs bronchial lymph nodes kidneys prostate and small intestine showed neither fungi nor acid fast organisms. (This report antedated the use of special stains for fungi.) In pulmonary cavities tubercle bacilli and histoplasma organisms have been found side by side (21). The author (22) has seen two fatal cases of typical cavitary pulmonary tuberculosis both of which showed early focal lesions with numerous histoplasma organisms in the adrenals; the pulmonary cavities showed only acid fast organisms. These observations illustrate the difficulty of determining which infection is primary and which is secondary.

The evidence suggests that neither the fungus nor the tubercle bacillus exerts any demonstrable inhibitory action on the other. It is possible that impairment of the immunologic machinery by either infection may favor the development of the other. Zimmerman (23) believed that the disseminated form of histoplasmosis was more likely to occur in patients with tuberculosis. It is perhaps even more probable that some unknown biochemical lesion (enzymatic abnormality) may critically lower the resistance to both organisms simultaneously. The unmasking of such a basic mechanism might prove more important than the discovery of new antibiotics since there is reason to believe that it may be impossible to treat the two infections simultaneously and effectively.

The occurrence of *dual fungal infections* is not surprising in view of the ubiquity of pathogenic fungi and the infrequency with which they cause clinically important tissue destruction. Here again a deteriorating immunologic mechanism may cause flaring up of two or more quiescent infections. In two fatal cases histoplasmosis cryptococcosis tuberculosis and Hodgkin's disease have all been found at autopsy.

Malignant Lymphoma Phelps and Mallory (24) reported pulmonary histoplasmosis in a patient dying with primary carcinoma

with great enlargement of the adrenals is the usual picture (18-19). Differential diagnosis from other types of Addison's disease must occasionally be considered, when other localizing signs are absent. Theoretically, with massive and partly calcified lesions demonstrable radiologically, needle punch biopsy would establish the diagnosis, since the caseous masses contain tremendous numbers of fungi demonstrable by special stains (see Figs. 1 and 11).

Other localized types of histoplasmosis such as joint involvement, renal and prostatic involvement present special problems and can be diagnosed only by demonstrating the organisms.

DISEASES ASSOCIATED WITH HISTOPLASMOSIS

It has become clear in recent years that several disease entities and syndromes occur in association with histoplasmosis much more frequently than could be explained by chance alone.

The specific infections most often associated with histoplasmosis are tuberculosis and a variety of fungal infections other than histoplasmosis, notably cryptococcosis. Active pulmonary tuberculosis is found at autopsy in 5-10% of all fatal cases of histoplasmosis (Hodgson *et al.* 21). In surgical material, Schulz *et al.* (12) found concurrent fungal and tuberculous infection in 4 of 140 specimens. Since this dual infection is rarely, if ever, recognized during life, time relationships are difficult to establish. It is possible that a tuberculous pulmonary cavity may serve as the portal of entry for the fungus, but cavity histoplasmosis could equally well be complicated by pulmonary tuberculosis, particularly in view of the fact that patients with uncomplicated pulmonary histoplasmosis often reside in tuberculosis sanatoriums where there is a particular danger of acid fast infection.

Judging from fatal cases reported, it would appear that in cases of dual acid fast and mycotic infection, disseminated lesions are much more often the result of histoplasmosis than of tuberculosis. That dual infection is not always fatal is illustrated by a case reported by Procknow, in which multiple histoplasmic lesions in the lung were superimposed on a quiescent solitary tuberculous lesion; the histoplasmic "snowstorm" cleared after a few months.

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inally in patients with blood dyscrasias (27). The widespread replacement of normal reticuloendothelial cells by atypical cells would be expected logically to result in lowered resistance.

Regarding the second explanation the author can say only that he has two cases of histoplasmosis and Hodgkin's disease in his files in which there has been serious disagreement among expert morphologists as to whether the lesions of Hodgkin's disease are true or spurious—in other words the lesions of Hodgkin's disease are not sufficiently typical to result in uniformity of opinion. Moreover, as the author (13) pointed out in 1919 in the reported cases of histoplasmosis associated with leukemia the leukemia was not entirely convincing and the possibility of a leukemoid reaction to bone marrow injury by the fungi could not be excluded. In the more recently reported cases (25) there appear to be similar deviations from the typical picture of leukemia and lymphoma. In two cases, for example, biopsied lymph nodes were diagnosed confidently as lymphosarcoma but eventual postmortem examination showed no evidence of any type of lymphoma. In one of these cases the reporters believed that there had probably been a mix up in the original biopsy slide but in the other case no such explanation was suggested. One must conclude then that the histoplasma infection had either cured the lymphosarcoma or had simulated lymphosarcoma so closely that experienced observers were misled. Even the two cases of leukemia reported by Nelson *et al.* (25) were aleukemic and somewhat lacking in documentation. This view is comparable to the recent recognition of the difficulties in sharply separating such conditions as myeloid metaplasia from leukemia. In short the author believes that many of the lymphomas and lymphosarcomas and some of the cases of atypical Hodgkin's disease associated with histoplasmosis are in reality reactive hyperplasia of the reticuloendothelial system.

The third possible explanation at least in a modified form has been most eloquently defended by Dubin (26). This worker gives serious consideration to the hypothesis previously advanced by Brandt (28) and by Desjardin (29) that various types of injury to the reticuloendothelial system including chronic infections may initiate Hodgkin's disease. Assuming that the primary disturbance

of the liver. The neoplastic diseases most often associated with disseminated histoplasmosis however are those which originate from the cells of the reticuloendothelial system particularly lymphatic leukemia, Lymphosarcoma and Hodgkin's disease all of which are considered to be varieties of malignant lymphoma.

Nelson *et al* (25) recently reviewed 25 cases in which histoplasmosis occurred in association with malignant lymphoma of one or another of the three types. Hodgkin's disease predominating. Among these 25 cases are included the two previously mentioned in which Hodgkin's disease was associated with histoplasmosis, cryptococcosis and tuberculosis.

The association of histoplasmosis with lymphoma is too frequent to be explained as purely fortuitous. As has been pointed out by several investigators this leaves us three possible explanations: (1) malignant lymphoma may so disturb the normal defense mechanisms of the body that exogenous infection or endogenous flaring up may result in progressive disseminated fungal infection; (2) under certain immunologic conditions the tissue reactions to the fungus may closely resemble malignant lymphoma; and (3) the mechanisms for the development of malignant lymphoma may be set in motion by the presence of the fungi.

The first explanation can be supported by considerable evidence and is most generally accepted. The author believes on the basis of personal experience that the second explanation is the correct one in certain cases. The third explanation is least probable but of greatest interest and the author feels that it would be unscientific to eliminate it without further experimental study.

In support of the first explanation an impressive array of evidence can be adduced. In Hodgkin's disease (and probably in other lymphomas) there is a demonstrable poverty of immunologic mechanisms (26). A wide variety of organisms have been cultivated from lymph nodes in Hodgkin's disease; antibodies against these organisms are present in very low titre or more often are completely absent (26). Zimmerman found malignant lymphoma in association with about one third of a series of 74 cases of disseminated cryptococcosis. Disseminated toxoplasmosis and disseminated salivary gland virus infection in adults often appear to occur term

relationships have been variable. Histoplasma organisms have been found in the re study of an excised lymph node which originally was diagnosed as sarcoidosis years later the patient died with generalized histoplasmosis and sarcoid lesions. In other cases the picture has been that of sarcoidosis but after years of a chronic benign course histoplasma organisms have appeared in excised lymph nodes (33).

The author's view based on studies of several cases is as follows. It seems quite possible that infection with *H. capsulatum* may complicate cases of true sarcoidosis. On the other hand careful study of several cases which clinically and histologically satisfy all criteria for a diagnosis of sarcoidosis has shown that the entire picture may be explained as a special type of reaction pattern to histoplasma organisms (19). Given a large focus of necrosis with masses of fungi in an organ such as the adrenals dissemination to organs with good immunity and sensitivity to the fungal antigen may result in lesions of the sarcoid type.

Histoplasma organisms are probably only a rare cause of the picture known as sarcoidosis. Other fungi the tubercle bacillus and probably other undiscovered antigens may stimulate the reticulo endothelial system in such a way as to cause the characteristic lesions and radiologic picture.

It is obvious that methods for discovering the etiologic agents of sarcoidosis are of great importance. In those cases where the antigen is fungal and live fungi are present somewhere in the body treatment with cortisone may cause flaring and dissemination of the infection unless it can be controlled by some as yet undiscovered antibiotic.

Allergic Diseases. As suggested above there is reason for believing that sarcoidosis may be an allergic manifestation of histoplasmosis somewhat comparable to the occurrence of erythema nodosum and erythema multiforme in association with coccidioidomycosis although the latter are transient. Allergic arteritis is common in histoplasmosis particularly in the lungs (34) and in the meninges (17). It seems possible that certain other allergic conditions of currently unknown cause may represent reactions to smouldering histoplasmic and other fungal infections.

in this disease may be an enzymatic deficiency resulting in a low level of antibody formation the result of antigenic stimulation would be first proliferation of reticuloendothelial cells and eventually a purposeless multiplication of these cells in a futile attempt to overcome their functional deficiency. Certainly if there is truth in this hypothesis *H. capsulatum* in an organism which multiplies within reticuloendothelial cells would be a powerful stimulus to the proliferation of these malfunctioning reticulum cells.

While it is true that in most cases the disseminated fungal infection appears to occur late in the course of the lymphoma in at least one instance it was present in a cutaneous nodule removed 4 years before death of the patient (30). The apparent absence of fungi in the early stages might be due to their small numbers in a delicately balanced host parasite relationship thus the fungi might act as a constant mild stimulus growing massively in tissues only as a terminal event. Admitting the speculative nature of such a theory it deserves at least careful testing by experimental methods.

Sarcoidosis is another reticuloendothelial condition (in this case a relatively benign one) which is rather frequently associated with histoplasmosis. While some workers feel that it is a specific disease entity others look on it as a reaction pattern resulting from a unique immunologic response of an allergic nature to a variety of antigenic stimulants (31). Still others realizing that non caseating hard tubercles form in response to many different agents make a distinction between the sarcoid lesion and true sarcoidosis (32).

Regardless of what new information further studies may bring to light certain facts at present are clear. Hard tubercles resembling those of sarcoidosis occur frequently in the liver spleen and lymph nodes in cases of chronic but eventually fatal histoplasmosis in which only one or two organs show necrotic lesions with demonstrable fungi and fungi are rarely found in these hard tubercles even with special stains (19). In a number of cases lymph node biopsy has led to a confident pathological diagnosis of sarcoidosis months or years later histoplasmosis has been found at autopsy—usually with necrotic foci in one or two organs and sarcoid like lesions in the other viscera and in the lymph nodes (19-30). Time

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Healed Histoplasmosis Splenic calcification is probably often the result of healed histoplasmosis (35) and the author has suggested that the peculiar type of splenomegaly known as Stengel Wolbach sclerosis may have a similar origin (19)

A study of fatal cases of histoplasmosis often shows scarring of the liver kidneys lungs and other organs (19). Since there is evidence that fungal lesions even when markedly destructive to tissues may eventually heal completely it seems possible that certain cases of diffuse and focal fibrosis in various organs may represent healed fungal lesions. If so proof will be very difficult but the author feels that it is the group of granulomatous and fibrotic conditions of currently unknown etiology that one must suspect histoplasma as a causative agent.

The accurate differential diagnosis of histoplasmosis the explanation of its frequent association with apparently unrelated conditions and the discovery of new clinico pathologic manifestations of the infection (particularly when fungi have largely or entirely disappeared from lesions) will continue to challenge the ingenuity of clinical and experimental investigators for many years to come.

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MEDICAL MANAGEMENT OF HISTOPLASMOSIS

J LEWIS YATES H VERNON LANCHEUTTIC AND C A BRASHER

INTRODUCTION

The need for effective medical management of histoplasmosis cannot be denied. A completely satisfactory or well standardized method of management of the disease has not been developed at this time. Some of the confusion which exists as to the effectiveness of the presently available therapy may be explained by the following: (1) Histoplasmosis presents varied and incompletely understood clinical pictures. (2) There is much variance in terminology. (3) Many patients with benign disease do not consult a physician. Whether they do or not they are very likely to improve spontaneously without specific therapy or in spite of the type of treatment used. (4) Serious types of disease may fluctuate in activity and become inactive spontaneously or have periods of clinical and x-ray remission without complete arrest of the disease (3, 4, 7, 17, 18, 26, 29).

The fact that many people in endemic areas have benign types of disease virtually without realizing it is shown by the finding that 75 to 90% of this population are positive histoplasmin reactors without a specific diagnosis of active histoplasmosis having been made previously (4, 7, 8, 24). A significant percentage of these individuals eventually develop important disease as shown by the finding that 7% of admissions to sanatoria in the endemic area have clinically significant histoplasmosis (24).

AIMS OF MEDICAL MANAGEMENT

It may seem superfluous to discuss the aims of medical therapy but this will assist in crystallizing our thinking. The aims of therapy will vary with the type of histoplasmosis to be treated. Unnecessary drug therapy should be avoided until the development of a cheap

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NON SPECIFIC MEDICAL THERAPY AND REST

Many of the principles of therapy discovered to be of value in other infections notably tuberculosis can be applied to the therapy of histoplasmosis (3 52) Supportive treatment and measures to assure patient comfort such as antipyretics et cetera so long the cornerstone of therapy in tuberculosis can be used to good advantage This is especially true of patients with acute benign pulmonary histoplasmosis Because of some danger of serious extra pulmonary dissemination or the development of progressive pulmonary disease it behooves the physician to advise a definite rest program It is true we do not know how often dissemination or development of progressive pulmonary disease occurs in patients with benign histoplasmosis but the incidence of all types of histoplasmosis in the endemic areas is so great (75 to 90% of the population) that any one physician is likely to see a moderate number of patients with serious types of histoplasmosis Since there seems to be an increased incidence of thrombophlebitis associated with disseminated histoplasmosis a rest program should be modified by allowing bathroom privileges and other mild activity to promote muscle tone and improve venous return (3 52) This complication should be borne in mind and when it occurs proper therapy should be instituted promptly Elderly individuals are more likely to develop this complication than patients in the younger age groups

Adequate nutrition is essential and indeed in many of the young people seen with so called benign pulmonary dissemination and chest x rays suggestive of miliary tuberculosis this seems to be very important The general nutritional principles found of value in the therapy of tuberculosis are applicable in this disease namely the maintenance of positive nitrogen balance adequate calcium balance and an adequate vitamin intake

At the Missouri State Sanatorium and in most sanatoria where histoplasmosis is being diagnosed at this time the majority of our cases are of the chronic progressive pulmonary type (18 24) The rest program is adjusted according to the severity of the illness as judged by toxicity and clinical progress Seriously ill patients are kept at complete bed rest until their fever has subsided and their

non toxic promptly effective anti fungal agent or agents which may be administered easily preferably by the oral route. Since many patients with active benign histoplasmosis will become well spontaneously or with supportive management only (10) judgment must be exercised in order to avoid unnecessary therapy and yet not fail to treat the progressive types of disease adequately. One goal should be to save as much useful lung tissue as possible. Since 80% of 30 cases with proved chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis have been shown to worsen significantly by x ray over a three year period the indication for specific antifungal therapy depends primarily on making the diagnosis in this type of disease (51). The aim of any therapy is to return an individual to a useful and comfortable active life whenever possible. A long course of unpleasant and possibly toxic treatment should not be undertaken if the diagnosis is questionable or if the patient is so aged or has other disease of such a nature as to preclude a successful result. Occasionally it is advisable to direct therapy only at the relief of symptoms.

Another aim of medical therapy will be to prepare patients for definitive surgery if this may be offered to lessen chances of recurrences after surgery and to decrease complications during the post operative period.

The aims in management of patients with progressive disseminated histoplasmosis are first to save life and then to restore them to useful and comfortable living. All supportive measures available should be employed as well as the best antifungal agents. Even a toxic drug will be used with a calculated risk in those cases with a uniformly grave prognosis. Some of these patients may die after a relatively short (3 to 4 week) illness (55). These aims are quite clear when the progressive pulmonary disease or disseminated histoplasmosis are considered. However the issues are not nearly as clear with benign pulmonary histoplasmosis. There is considerable disagreement as to when to start treatment as to the duration of an initial observation period before starting treatment and whether any therapy at all is advisable (1 3 4 7 18 26 29).

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Many of the principles of therapy discovered to be of value in other infections notably tuberculosis can be applied to the therapy of histoplasmosis (3 52) Supportive treatment and measures to assure patient comfort such as antipyretics et cetera so long the cornerstone of therapy in tuberculosis can be used to good advantage This is especially true of patients with acute benign pulmonary histoplasmosis Because of some danger of serious extra pulmonary dissemination or the development of progressive pulmonary disease it behooves the physician to advise a definite rest program It is true we do not know how often dissemination or development of progressive pulmonary disease occurs in patients with benign histoplasmosis but the incidence of all types of histoplasmosis in the endemic areas is so great (75 to 90% of the population) that any one physician is likely to see a moderate number of patients with serious types of histoplasmosis Since there seems to be an increased incidence of thrombophlebitis associated with disseminated histoplasmosis a rest program should be modified by allowing bathroom privileges and other mild activity to promote muscle tone and improve venous return (3 52) This complication should be borne in mind and when it occurs proper therapy should be instituted promptly Elderly individuals are more likely to develop this complication than patients in the younger age groups

Adequate nutrition is essential and indeed in many of the young people seen with so-called benign pulmonary dissemination and chest x rays suggestive of miliary tuberculosis this seems to be very important The general nutritional principles found of value in the therapy of tuberculosis are applicable in this disease namely the maintenance of positive nitrogen balance adequate calcium balance and an adequate vitamin intake

At the Missouri State Sanatorium and in most sanatoria where histoplasmosis is being diagnosed at this time the majority of our cases are of the chronic progressive pulmonary type (18 24) The rest program is adjusted according to the severity of the illness as judged by toxicity and clinical progress Seriously ill patients are kept at complete bed rest until their fever has subsided and their

general condition has improved sufficiently to allow mild activity including bathroom privileges. Patients who are not very ill and who are doing well are allowed up for one to two hours at meal times may attend weekly movies do handicraft or go to school part time. By allowing the patient these moderate privileges we believe that he is more willing to accept specific therapy which is likely to require several months of hospitalization. Of course the optimum length of hospitalization and duration of chemotherapy have not been determined at this time.

It seems of the utmost importance to prescribe a well rounded therapeutic program including modified bed rest proper nutrition rehabilitation procedures as well as specific antifungal agents for all patients with active histoplasmosis of a serious nature. It is probable that until more adequate antifungal therapy is devised we should use rest principles similar to those used for tuberculosis before the present chemotherapy for tuberculosis was established. It can be shown that rest and good nutrition alone will cause temporary remission clinically and by x ray and by sputum examination and in a rare case will result in apparent inactivity of the chronic pulmonary type of disease.

An example of this is shown in Case I a 36 year old white male who was admitted to the Sanatorium because of weight loss cough and weakness of three months duration.

The physical findings were normal. The tuberculin skin test was negative and the histoplasmin skin test was positive. The histoplasmin complement fixation was positive with a titer of 1:64. A bronchoscopy was negative. A scalene lymph node biopsy revealed chronic granulomatous lymphadenitis. Routine blood counts urinalysis and liver function tests were normal and remained unchanged. One sputum culture was positive for *Histoplasma capsulatum*. The patient received ten days of oral Amphoteracin B therapy prior to leaving the hospital against medical advice. We now know that this was ineffective therapy. As may be seen (Fig. 1) the x rays on admission revealed multiple cavities and infiltrations occupying both upper lung fields. Fourteen months later a chest x ray showed practically complete clearing of the disease. The patient had not received any specific therapy meanwhile except for a modified rest program at home. He has been working as an accountant for approximately one

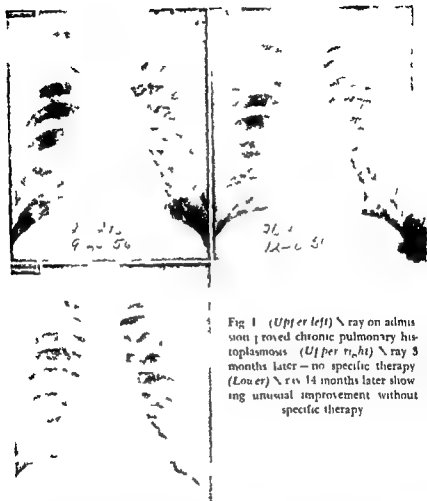


Fig 1 (Upper left) X ray on admission proved chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis (Upper right) X ray 3 months later—no specific therapy (Lower) X ray 14 months later showing unusual improvement without specific therapy

year and he remains clinically well. Whether the disease will exacerbate remains to be seen, as there are X-ray abnormalities remaining at the left apex.

This improvement on rest and good nutrition is also illustrated by Case 2. This 35 year old white male had been relatively well until February 1956 when he developed flu with weakness, non-productive cough and low grade fever which did not seem to respond to the usual antibiotics. He lost approxi-

mately 15 pounds in weight. Two weeks prior to admission he developed right anterior pleuritic chest pain.

Physical examination on admission on September 11, 1956, revealed a thin white male appearing chronically ill with diminished breath sounds over the right chest. The examination was otherwise normal.

The important laboratory work revealed a negative PPD skin test, a positive histoplasmin skin test, and a positive complement fixation at a titer of 1:64. Numerous sputum cultures for acid fast bacilli were negative. Four sputums were positive on culture for *Histoplasma capsulatum*.

Course: During hospitalization the patient was afebrile except for temperature of 102°F on two occasions during amphotericin therapy. Oral Amphotericin B was begun at 6 gm daily on December 8, 1956, and continued until February 19, 1957. Meanwhile intravenous Amphotericin B was begun on December 13, 1956, and continued until March 6, 1957. A total of 1,840 mg was given in the three months period. The average dose was 60 mg three times a week. During the administration of the drug the patient showed moderate side effects such as anorexia, headache, and nausea, but these symptoms were well controlled by analgesics and chlorpromazine. Repeated blood counts, urinalyses, and liver function tests did not show abnormalities. The blood urea nitrogen rose no higher than 18 mg during intravenous Amphotericin B therapy. On March 8, 1957, the patient left the hospital against medical advice, having been advised to have surgery. On May 22, 1957, he underwent a right upper lobectomy at the Mayo Clinic. Cultures from the resected tissue were reported negative for *Histoplasma capsulatum* and acid fast bacilli, but there was a necrotic granulomatous type of disease present.

The patient's progress since then has been excellent. The last chest x-ray was taken here on May 14, 1958, and reveals no evidence of active pulmonary disease.

This patient improved at first on a modified rest program and good nutrition, as shown by the definite improvement between the x-rays of September 11 and October 29, 1956 (see Fig 2). The x-ray findings remained stable until Amphotericin B therapy, and then seemed to improve further. Six sputum cultures collected after starting Amphotericin B were negative for

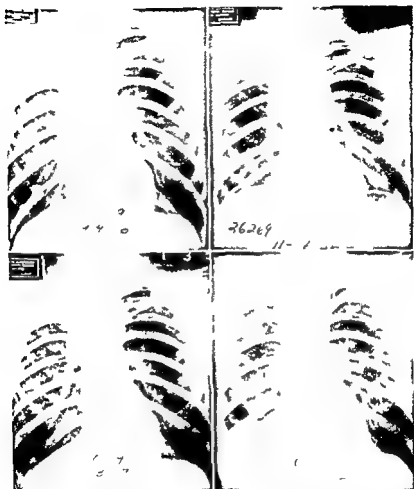


Fig 2 (Upper left) X ray on admission—culturally proved chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis (Upper right) 71 days later on bed rest and good nutrition alone (Lower left) After 5 weeks of I V Amphotericin B (Lower right) 1 year after right upper lobectomy—clinically well

Histoplasma capsulatum Symptoms improved but complete cure was not achieved without resectional surgery

INDICATIONS FOR SPECIFIC THERAPY

It is advisable that an observation period of variable duration be considered to observe a diagnosed or a suspected case before specific therapy is instituted. Specific antifungal agents should be applied in the treatment of (1) persistently symptomatic primary pulmonary infiltrations (2) chronic progressive pulmonary histoplasmosis (3) disseminated histoplasmosis (4) mucocutaneous lesions (which usually indicate disseminated disease) (5) active histoplasmosis superimposed on other chronic debilitating diseases (1 3 4 7 51 52). It is hoped that an inexpensive non-toxic oral antifungal agent will be found which will be at least as effective against the *Histoplasma Capsulatum* as those available for the treatment of tuberculosis. Extreme care must be exerted to avoid attributing a favorable result to a medication when the improvement noted may have been due to a spontaneous remission which may occur during the natural course of the disease. This is exemplified by the fact that many drugs reported favorably initially have not proven effective after complete studies and adequate follow up evaluations. Temporary clinical x-ray and sputum improvement may be observed with bed rest and an improved nutritional program (as may often occur in tuberculosis) and indeed sometimes without any therapy at all (see Cases 1 and 2). Patients who consult physicians relatively late with progressive pulmonary disease or disseminated histoplasmosis on a rapid downhill course should be treated immediately with the best antifungal agents available. Patients with acute benign histoplasmosis often will show definite improvement in three to four weeks or sooner on a supportive program. If signs of dissemination or local progression occur in a diagnosed case specific antifungal therapy should be instituted. Signs and symptoms of progression which should indicate immediate specific chemotherapy are persistent and increasing weakness malaise fever weight loss hepatomegaly splenomegaly anemia leukopenia lymphadenopathy increasing or obviously active x-ray findings mucocutaneous ulcers severe cough and hemoptysis.

pleurisy associated with other indications of activity in a known case and most important of all persistently positive cultures of the sputum the bone marrow and the blood

Although a certain number of disseminated cases will become well eventually without drug treatment (51) it is better not to gamble with a possibly unfavorable result. Furthermore the shortening of a patient's illness is of definite value providing the therapeutic agent is not dangerous. The toxic effects of an agent should be carefully evaluated and balanced continuously against any benefits which may accrue. To be convincing the beneficial effects should begin in a relatively short time such as three to six weeks depending on the type of disease.

In the evaluation of an antifungal agent it is advisable to restrict the types of patients treated to those with histoplasmosis proven by mycological means such as positive sputum or gastric cultures positive bone marrow cultures or positive methenamine silver stains from resected tissues. However we believe that it is important to treat with antifungal agents those excessively toxic patients who can be considered to have active histoplasmosis showing progression and who have been diagnosed on the basis of x-ray findings clinical picture positive skin test and serological findings but without having proved histoplasmosis on a cultural or histological basis (24). A similar principle has been followed in the treatment of tuberculosis particularly in young persons with disease that is apparently active by x-ray who have positive skin tests and who have a history of contact with individuals with active tuberculosis.

THERAPEUTIC AGENTS AVAILABLE

Numerous agents have been proposed for use as effective antifungal drugs. A brief review of many of these which have been studied follows. In 1945 Elson (56) reported that certain of the diamines exerted a fungistatic effect on *Histomyces dermatitidis* so these were tried on *Histoplasma capsulatum* but the *in vitro* studies with stilbamidine and hydroxystilbamidine demonstrated that concentrations required to inhibit *Histoplasma capsulatum* could not be achieved safely *in vivo*. This has been confirmed by clinical trials

in cavitary pulmonary histoplasmosis (6 19) Aminostilbamidine has failed in clinical trials Beta diethylaminofenolate (MRD 112 Merrell) has proved disappointing, although there are some reports in the literature of beneficial effect in pulmonary histoplasmosis (1 3 4 19 23) Ethyl vanillate has a narrow therapeutic index and gastric irritation frequently occurs at the effective level of between 20 and 30 mg per cent (1 3 26) Nystatin is absorbed poorly from the gastrointestinal tract and produces intolerable side effects when given intravenously although animal studies revealed it was an effective *in vivo* antifungal agent (3 14 15 16 23) It has been used successfully in local injection for mucocutaneous ulcers and also as a topical agent Experience at the Missouri State Sanatorium failed to prove that it had any demonstrable effect on chronic cavitary histoplasmosis (23) Amebicide (Rx Lilly) is shown to be active *in vitro* but has proved ineffective in clinical trials probably due to the fact that it is poorly soluble in water (4)

Sulfapyridine sulfathiazole and sulfadiazine have been shown to protect and cure mice challenged with *Histoplasma Capsulatum* infection (20) Combining sulfadiazine with nystatin or Amphoteracin B produced better results in histoplasmosis in hamsters than when either drug was given alone (2, 4 3) However the fungistatic action demonstrated in the laboratory has not been borne out in most clinical trials when these sulfas were used alone (3 23 25) Further clinical tests combining sulfonamides with more active agents such as Amphoteracin B are definitely indicated since Christie suggests that they are beneficial in disseminated disease in children (40 53) Actidione (cycloheximide) has not proven effective clinically Candicidin was found to be too toxic for human use as was ascosin An antibiotic Nepera 1968 seems helpful in mice as effective *in vitro* and warrants clinical trials (44 45) However this drug is apparently not being produced at this time in quantities sufficient for trials as a systemic medication

Various sex hormones do show *in vitro* fungistatic activity Studies in animals and humans are too few for evaluation at the present time (1 11) Disulferam (antabuse) shows *in vitro* activity but is of no value clinically (4 28) Numerous other chemical compounds have been tested unsuccessfully either because they

proved ineffective or too toxic. Some of these are Iodides, thymol, quinine, aminosalicylic acid, quinacrine, urethane, aminopterin, neotrisphenamin, stilbophen, stilbamine, vitamin K, and antihistamines (1, 3, 1, 21). Isoniazid can be shown to have some in vitro effect as well, but our experience in treating patients with combined tuberculosis and histoplasmosis does not indicate that it is of definite clinical value in histoplasmosis.

Broad spectrum antibiotics and even penicillin have been used by us and others in certain cases of the chronic pulmonary disease with apparent clinical improvement. However, we have not been able to demonstrate conversion of sputum and believe this clinical improvement is due to the inhibition of secondary bacterial invaders in the large cavities which are present in chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis.

ACTH and adrenosteroids have been reported of value in some disseminated cases but were of little value in mice (4, 26). Disseminated histoplasmosis not infrequently involves the adrenal cortex, producing clinical adrenal insufficiency (52; see Case 4). This must be kept in mind in evaluating these results, since spontaneous improvement in disseminated cases has been observed (51). Steroids may serve to tip the balance favorably in borderline cases. Critical judgment must be used in evaluating results in a spontaneously remitting disease. The use of adrenosteroids in active chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis without effective antifungal therapy should be considered dangerous.

Pimaricine (Lilly), an antibiotic of the polyene type, has shown antifungal activity in in vitro studies roughly comparable to that of Amphotericin B and nystatin. It has been prepared as an oral drug but causes considerable gastrointestinal reaction which prevents most patients from taking it well. It may prove effective in a parenteral form but is not available as yet (5, 49).

AMPHOTERICIN B*

Much of the discussion in this section is based on our personal experience.

Amphotericin B seems to show promise as a broad spectrum antifungal agent (3, 41, 42, 52). It is an amphoteric antibiotic derived from a previously undescribed species of *Streptomyces* iso-

in cavitary pulmonary histoplasmosis (6-19). Aminostilbamidine has failed in clinical trials. Beta diethylaminofenicolate (MRD 112 Merrell) has proved disappointing although there are some reports in the literature of beneficial effects in pulmonary histoplasmosis (1-3, 4, 19-23). Ethyl vanillate has a narrow therapeutic index and gastric irritation frequently occurs at the effective level of between 20 and 30 mg per cent (1-3, 26). Nystatin is absorbed poorly from the gastrointestinal tract and produces intolerable side effects when given intravenously although animal studies revealed it was an effective *in vivo* antifungal agent (3, 14, 15, 16, 23). It has been used successfully in local injection for mucocutaneous ulcers and also as a topical agent. Experience at the Missouri State Sanatorium failed to prove that it had any demonstrable effect on chronic cavitary histoplasmosis (23). Amebacide (Rx Lilly) is shown to be active *in vitro* but has proved ineffective in clinical trials probably due to the fact that it is poorly soluble in water (4).

Sulfapyridine, sulfathiazole and sulfadiazine have been shown to protect and cure mice challenged with *Histoplasma Capsulatum* infection (20). Combining sulfadiazine with nystatin or Amphotericin B produced better results in histoplasmosis in hamsters than when either drug was given alone (2, 4, 3). However the fungistatic action demonstrated in the laboratory has not been borne out in most clinical trials when these sulfas were used alone (3, 23, 25). Further clinical tests combining sulfonamides with more active agents such as Amphotericin B are definitely indicated since Christie suggests that they are beneficial in disseminated disease in children (40-53). Actidione (cycloheximide) has not proven effective clinically. Candicidin was found to be too toxic for human use as was ascosin. An antibiotic Nepera 1968 seems helpful in mice *in vitro* and warrants clinical trials (41-45). However this drug is apparently not being produced at this time in quantities sufficient for trials as a systemic medication.

Various sex hormones do show *in vitro* fungistatic activity. Studies in animals and humans are too few for evaluation at the present time (1-11). Disulfiram (antabuse) shows *in vitro* activity but is of no value clinically (4, 28). Numerous other chemical compounds have been tested unsuccessfully either because they

ments to tolerance when it may then be given three times a week in full dosage. We have not treated anyone with more than 1 mg per kilogram per day.

Practically every patient receiving the antibiotic exhibits mild side effects. These consist of malaise, anorexia, nausea, low grade fever, and headache. Tables I and II present the severity, frequency, and type of side effects observed by us during the therapy of 24 cases of histoplasmosis with intravenous Amphotericin B. The majority of patients gradually develop tolerance to fever

TABLE I

SIDE EFFECTS—14 CASES OF AMPHOTERICIN B

<i>Degree</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
None	4	16.6
Mild	6	25.0
Moderate	10	41.6
Severe	4	16.6
Total	24	93.8

TABLE II

SIDE EFFECTS AND RELATIVE FREQUENCY OF SYMPTOMS IN 20 CASES—14 AMPHOTERICIN B

<i>Symptom</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Symptom</i>	<i>Number</i>
Anorexia	14	Nausea	5
Chills	1	Diarrhea	1
Headache	9	Rhinitis	1
Fever	8	Purpura	1
Emesis	—		

lated from a soil sample from along the Orinoco River in South America. Its exact chemical structure is unknown but it is classified as a polyene compound with a molecular formula of $C_{46}H_{73}NO_{20}$ (41). It has no antibacterial activity, but inhibits the growth of yeast and yeast like fungi to a marked degree (35-36, 38). Larsh *et al* found 50% inhibition of 5 strains of yeast phase *Histoplasma Capsulatum* by 0.05 mcg per milliliter concentration using Hela cell techniques. The gastrointestinal absorption of this drug is rather poor. It is available as a lyophilized yellow powder prepared for parenteral use* (46). The published data on blood, urine and spinal fluid levels are meager. Bio assay on a few patients indicates definitely inhibitory concentrations in blood. There is prolonged excretion in the urine with significant antifungal effects for as long as two months after discontinuance of intravenous therapy (51). This suggests that the drug accumulates in the kidneys and then it is released in the urine gradually. This concept is supported by the tendency for the blood urea nitrogen to rise progressively as therapy continues. The phenosulfonephthalein and urea clearance tests are progressively depressed also. Forcing fluids will tend to decrease the BUN elevation. These renal function tests return to normal within a two to four week period after discontinuance of the drug.

Increased resistance to *Candida* species to nystatin and Amphotericin B has been induced *in vitro* (48). The development of resistance in clinical situations has not been thoroughly investigated as yet.

The dosage usually ranges between 0.5 mg and 1.0 mg per kilogram of body weight given intravenously in 500 to 1,000 cc of 5% glucose in water over a six hour period. It is given daily to seriously and acutely ill patients and to initiate a course of therapy (3-52). After the dosage has been increased to tolerance or the patient has shown considerable improvement the frequency is usually decreased to three times a week. The optimal duration of therapy is unknown. The treatment is begun with a 25 mg dose usually given daily and gradually increased by 5 mg incre

* Each 50 mg of Amphotericin B is packaged with 41 mg of sodium desoxycholate with sodium phosphate as a buffer under the name of Fungizone by Squibb.

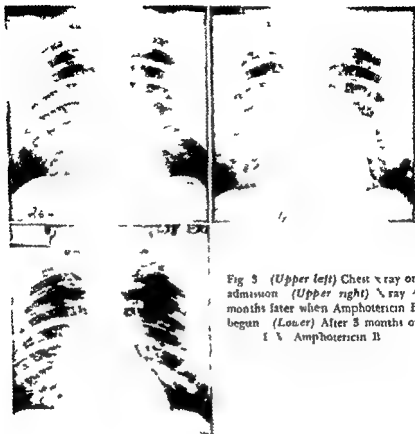


Fig 3 (Upper left) Chest x ray on admission (Upper right) x ray 4 months later when Amphotericin B begun (Lower) After 3 months of 1 x Amphotericin B

One investigator is administering small doses of hydrocortisone with each treatment and beneficial results are noted in the reduction of side effects (50). This may greatly improve patient acceptance of the drug. In an occasional patient phlebitis and/or periphlebitis affecting the vein used for administration may be a problem. This usually subsides spontaneously within 24 to 48 hours. Avoidance of recently used veins will help.

The results of therapy of progressive types of histoplasmosis with Amphotericin B have been favorable. As would be expected the results in disseminated histoplasmosis have been more dramatic than with chronic pulmonary disease. The problem pre

malaise and headache. The nausea is controlled fairly well by chlorpromazine and meclizine and the fever and malaise by salicylates. All of the patients with severe side effects were difficult to control by ancillary medications (steroids were not used). The side effects of the drug were poorly controlled with only one of the moderate group. Only one patient failed to receive at least six weeks' therapy because of side effects. Two were discontinued because of elevated BUN or rash. Two who needed more therapy left against advice at the end of two months' therapy. One of these has shown a sputum relapse and the other is lost to follow up. Chills will occur in an occasional patient and are helped by adjusting the dosage and time of administration of salicylates by sedation and by keeping the patient warm. These side effects do not seem to be serious except that they tend to limit patient acceptance of the therapy. This of course will vary considerably from patient to patient and will depend largely on their understanding of the need for treatment and physician-patient rapport. One of our patients with culturally proved pulmonary histoplasmosis who received great benefit from the treatment took the drug for four months although he spiked temperature of 101° to 102° F every day of therapy in spite of other medications. This patient's chest x-rays are shown in Fig. 3. Note the increase in x-ray findings between September 6, 1956 and January 10, 1957 when Amphotermin B was started. This patient remains well and is working full time more than a year after discharge from the hospital. The patient acceptance is also influenced adversely by the mode and duration of administration of each dose. More serious side effects do occur. Azotemia usually of mild degree occurs rather uniformly and is usually accompanied by decreased urea clearance and phenosulfonphthalein excretion. The blood urea nitrogen commonly rises to 30 mg per cent and occasionally higher. Purpuric eruptions rarely have been observed. Pruritus occurs occasionally during the actual administration. Temporarily discontinuing the drug for more than 48 hours usually necessitates restarting the drug at a lower dose and reactions which occur are usually more severe than those observed initially. Two cases restarted after more than two weeks' lay off have presented anaphylactoid type of reactions.

was readmitted to the hospital with adreno-cortical insufficiency with an exacerbation of his clinical findings including fever weight loss general malaise splenomegaly and central histoplasmosis as shown by positive urine cultures. He has now responded well to Amphotericin B given along with adrenosteroid therapy.

Amphotericin B must be considered an effective drug in the treatment of histoplasmosis. It may be considered most effective in disseminated disease and may be used to speed recovery of persistent benign pulmonary histoplasmosis. It has proved to be suppressive in chronic progressive pulmonary disease. If there is much destruction of lung tissue surgical excision is advisable when feasible (22-24-25-26). Thoracoplasty may be advisable rarely. The antibiotic may assist in inactivating disease on one side so that the disease in the other lung may be resected. It may be used effectively as an umbrella for resectional surgery of histoplasmosis (22-24-26). The use of Amphotericin B at present may be likened to the early use of streptomycin in tuberculosis. This is illustrated by similar uncertainties as to dosage duration of therapy and types of disease for which it should be used. However patient acceptance of this therapy is not on a par with that of streptomycin. The optimum duration of therapy is unknown but proper evaluation of effectiveness in any case of chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis requires two to four months of therapy. At present we are attempting to persuade our patients to accept at least four months of drug therapy. X-ray improvement frequently does not parallel closely sputum conversion and relief of constitutional and pulmonary symptoms. After antibiotic therapy we advise continuation of a modified rest program for six months or longer depending on whether surgery has been done and the amount of disease remaining. Extremely severe types of disseminated histoplasmosis such as central nervous system disease (meningitis and involvement of brain tissue) and endocarditis have been observed and should be considered indications for higher dosage and more prolonged therapy with Amphotericin possibly combined with sulfonamides and other antifungal agents (39).

Other drugs are needed and are being tested. Short cut meth

sented here is comparable to that seen in moderately and far advanced pulmonary tuberculosis that is if there is considerable destruction of lung tissue (massive necrosis) a morass of diseased tissue is created from which it is most difficult to eradicate the organism without surgical intervention.

The character of the sputum usually changes from purulent to mucoid and the quantity is markedly diminished even disappearing in some instances. Serial chest x rays reveal clearing of exudative components but cavities and necrotic foci frequently remain although often decreased in size. The antibiotic is definitely suppressive and produces remarkable clinical improvement and prompt sputum conversion in most patients. This has been shown with 23 of our chronic pulmonary cases in which persistently positive sputum cultures became negative within two to three weeks and remained so as long as therapy was continued. Several patients with extensive pulmonary destruction who voluntarily stopped therapy after six to eight weeks have shown sputum relapses. One elderly man with a destroyed right lung and a bronchopleural fistula and chronic empyema showed a sputum and clinical relapse within two weeks after cessation of treatment. This therapy had been continued steadily for nearly six months. This happened in spite of the fact that his x ray had shown absence of empyema fluid and his sputum cultures had been consistently negative for four months. Another patient with chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis showed a sputum relapse while we were changing from the insoluble suspension to the lyophilized form which necessitated administration of the drug in lower dosage temporarily. He maintained his clinical improvement and underwent a resection without mishap and remains well after one year. Another patient with far advanced cavitary pulmonary disease improved by x ray and clinically but his sputum did not convert until after two months of therapy.

An elderly man with severe disseminated disease on a downhill course for two months responded clinically within a week and made a remarkable recovery within two months at which time treatment was discontinued because the BUN was 70 mg per cent. He remained well for approximately seven months and recently



Fig 4 (Upper left) Prior to Amphotericin therapy 5 sputums positive for *Histoplasma Capsulatum* (Upper right) 9 months of I V Amphotericin B Sputums negative for *Histoplasma Capsulatum* (Lower left) 1 month after cessation of Amphotericin B Sputums still negative (Lower right) 3 months after stopping Amphotericin ■ Sputums negative for *Histoplasma Capsulatum*

ods of testing using Heh1 cell tissue cultures to determine their effects on yeast forms are being used (5)

Case 4 will illustrate some of the above statements. This 57 year old white man with active chronic cavitary pulmonary histoplasmosis was diagnosed on the basis of 5 sputums positive on culture for *Histoplasma capsulatum* positive histoplasmin skin test positive complement fixation for histoplasmosis and abnormal chest x rays (see Fig 1). Although the tuberculin test was positive 13 sputum cultures were negative for acid fast bacilli.

Intravenous Amphotericin B was given for 4 1/2 months. During this treatment the patient gained 10 pounds and became afebrile except for a low grade fever occurring on the day of each I V treatment. He received 65 mg of Amphotericin B three times a week. He suffered moderate side effects including nausea occasional vomiting intestinal cramping and mild diarrhea mild chilling anorexia and malaise. These were well controlled by salicylates and chlorpromazine. The blood urea nitrogen remained normal throughout the therapy. The last sputum that was positive for *Histoplasma capsulatum* was collected 3 days after starting intravenous Amphotericin B. There have been 15 sputum cultures negative since then and 6 of these were collected since Amphotericin B was stopped. The patient was readmitted for a short time recently approximately 3 months after stopping Amphotericin B and 3 sputums were negative by culture for *Histoplasma capsulatum*. He suffers infrequent episodes of increased cough and purulent sputum with low grade fever and malaise. These symptoms are controlled by short courses of broad spectrum antibiotics. We believe these are due to secondary bacterial infections of the large cavities remaining in the lungs (see Fig 4).

This patient illustrates the conversion of sputum by Amphotericin B and the improvement of exudative components of his disease but destructive lung disease remains and it may be only a matter of time until his sputum becomes positive again. Surgery is not advisable because of his poor ventilatory function and bilateral cavitation. Perhaps intramuscular Amphotericin B could be used to keep this type of disease quiescent. This case is an example of the serious type of chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis and

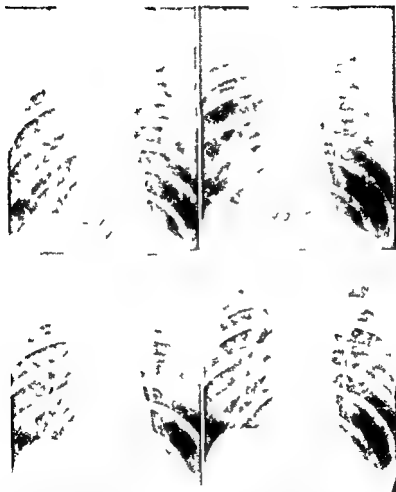


Fig 4 (Upper left) Prior to Amphotericin therapy 5 sputums positive for *Histoplasma Capsulatum* (Upper right) 5 months of I V Amphotericin B Sputums negative for *Histoplasma Capsulatum* (Lower left) 1 month after cessation of Amphotericin B Sputums still negative (Lower right) 3 months after stopping Amphotericin B Sputums negative for *Histoplasma Capsulatum*.

illustrates some of the problems which occur in the therapy of this type of disease

SUMMARY

It appears very likely that eventually the therapy of histoplasmosis will include combined drug therapy over longer periods than are used now. Perhaps the combination of Amphotericin B and a sulfonamide would be worth a trial at this time. Also surgery will be used more freely as a more effective medical therapy evolves.

At present Amphotericin B seems to be the best antifungal agent available. It is primarily suppressive and has its own toxicity and therefore should be used only where definitely indicated. The principles of therapy developed for tuberculosis are useful, namely rest, adequate nutrition, and long combined drug therapy. Certainly there is a tremendous need to learn more of the disease itself as well as its treatment. This certainly will be forthcoming in the ensuing years as many people are working on this problem. Cooperative studies on mycoses such as are being carried out by the British Medical Research Council, Veterans Administration and U. S. Public Health Service on tuberculosis have been inaugurated by the Veterans Administration and U. S. Public Health Service with regard to these mycoses. These should prove to be very fruitful in the future.

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SURGERY FOR PULMONARY HISTOPLASMOSIS

JOHN W. POLK

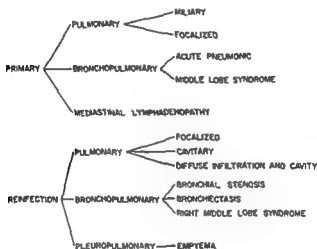
Resection for localized mycotic lesions of the lung has been advocated in the past few years as indicated by several reports in the literature (1-5). These reports deal primarily with the three most important blastomycosis, coccidioidomycosis and histoplasmosis although other isolated reports prove that other mycotic lesions may be successfully resected. Thirty cases of localized pulmonary histoplasmosis with complete pathological studies have been presented by Forsee (6) and his co-workers. Chronic progressive histoplasmosis was first described by Johnson and Batson (7) and Bunnell and Furcolow (8) in 1948. Sutcliffe and his co-workers (9), Polk and his co-workers (10) and Hughes and his co-workers (11) later presented cases comparable with this form of the disease. In a more recent report Polk and his co-workers (12) demonstrated the wide variety of pulmonary manifestations which may occur with this disease and reported cases which must be differentiated from bronchogenic carcinoma, pulmonary tuberculosis, bronchiectasis and empyema. It is the purpose of this text to consider problems encountered with the surgery of pulmonary histoplasmosis.

CLASSIFICATION

The usual classifications of pulmonary histoplasmosis have seemed to be unsatisfactory from a surgical viewpoint and we suggest a modification from pre-existing classifications. Pulmonary histoplasmosis has complete disregard for tissue barriers and can produce all of the pathological processes encountered with pulmonary tuberculosis. That the two diseases occur simultaneously in approximately 20% of our cases seems well documented.

Our series of cases includes pulmonary resection of 27 localized lesions (histoplasma), 29 cases presenting other varying pulmonary pathological processes, 12 cases of pulmonary histoplasmosis

in children and approximately 25 cases of histoplasmosis seen at the Missouri State Sanatorium for which no surgery was recommended. In this series the diagnosis has been proven by demonstrating the organism *Histoplasma capsulatum* in the body tissue or sputum or serologically proven by having a complement fixation titer of 1:8 or higher. No case is included which revealed only a positive skin test. We would therefore present the following classification as a basis of study for the surgeon.



HISTOPLASMOSIS ASSOCIATED WITH PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS

Indications for Resection

Two considerations of paramount importance must be understood when treating pulmonary histoplasmosis. First establishing a diagnosis of histoplasmosis may be long and tedious since culture of the organism is not practical in the routine laboratory. Second if the patient has not localized his disease to a portion of the lung then the prognosis is very poor. If these facts are realized then surgical resection for histoplasmosis seems to offer excellent therapy in this form of the disease.

The indications for resection of histoplasmosis have not as yet been definitely established due to the paucity of cases. We have therefore utilized many of the established indications for resection

in pulmonary tuberculosis to guide our selection of cases for surgery

PRIMARY HISTOPLASMOSIS

The diagnosis of primary histoplasmosis is often rendered most difficult since the patients with this form of the disease do not develop lesions which cause the organism to be prominent in the sputum. Therefore the diagnosis must often be suspected by the history and x ray appearance of the disease and further proof gained by the use of the serological and skin testing studies. It is true in this form of the disease that the symptoms may often be so mild that clinical advice is not gained at the time of infection and many late diagnoses are made by the presence of healed calcified lesions in persons with positive histoplasmin skin test and negative tuberculin test. It is this group of individuals who in the primary phase of the disease present a military involvement of the lungs or a focalized small infiltrative lesion.

Other types of the primary phase may occur however such as the acute pneumonic form of the disease or a phase of the disease which we have frequently seen that is right middle lobe syndrome. It is our contention that these phases of the disease do require specific treatment.

Case Report This 5 year old white female was seen on June 2 1957 complaining of cough aching of the legs and ankles and loss of appetite. Her mother stated that she had been running temperature almost every day for one month. The child had remained active until the past several days. There was no weight loss. The child gave a history suggestive of having aspirated material from a rug approximately two weeks prior to this when she had a violent episode of coughing. X rays on June 2 revealed an atelectasis of the right middle lobe and some infiltration in the right lower lung field. Bronchoscopy was performed at Burge Hospital Springfield Mo June 7. Right middle lobe bronchus was noted to be markedly inflamed and almost completely closed from extensive pressure. There was no evidence of any foreign body in either right or left. Smears and cultures were made for acid fast organisms. These studies were completely negative. An intermediate strength tuberculin skin test

was negative. The histoplasmin skin test was positive. Complement fixation studies were reported positive 1:128.

The child was discharged to her home on antibiotics which we felt would help control secondary infection. Over the last year the serology has varied from 1:16 to 1:28. On the above program which had been supplemented frequently with broad spectrum antibiotics the atelectasis in the right middle lobe has improved approximately 50%. A tonsillectomy was performed July 3, 1958 and the child is doing well.

Mediastinal lymphadenopathy, another phase of the primary form, varies in the symptoms that it produces. It has been our experience that symptoms do not necessarily follow the preponderance of the adenopathy but seem to vary a great deal with the location of the adenopathy and the resistance of the patient to this disease. We have seen patients with extensive bilateral mediastinal adenopathy who presented very few symptoms and in whom the serological titer was not over 1:8. In contrast to this we have seen several cases where the only presenting adenopathy was in the azygos node yet each of these patients presented marked symptoms consisting of malaise, fever, weight loss and anorexia. In both of these patients the serological titer was 1:64 and 1:128 was found. Both cases improved after long terms of bed rest and broad spectrum antibiotics which were used to control secondary infection.

In two cases the mediastinal node was large and calcified. Even though one of these patients had a positive tuberculin skin test and histoplasmin skin test, the location of the node in the anterior chest suggested the possibility of a dermoid cyst. At the time of surgical removal a diagnosis could not be made until the specimen was opened and studied.

RE INFECTION HISTOPLASMOSIS

Reinfection histoplasmosis comprises the majority of cases which we have seen who definitely seem to benefit by surgical resection. The age group on this type of case in our series has varied from 18 years of age to 68. The various phases of this disease under our classification will be discussed separately.

Focalized pulmonary histoplasmosis (histoplasmaoma) is being encountered more frequently in surgical resections throughout the

country than any other phase of this disease (11). This is due primarily to the fact that these are coin lesions and exploratory thoracotomies are being done because of the predominating fear of bronchogenic carcinoma. Such a surgical attack is definitely warranted. The spread of the histoplasmosis from resection of the histoplasma is extremely rare. In our series of cases and in the series presented by Davis and his group (18) there was no spread of the disease from resection of this type of case. Since this case is so fairly common no case report will be given.

It is well to bear in mind however that in dealing with this type of case both histoplasmosis and tuberculosis may be found in the same nodule. It has therefore been our routine to cover all such patients who are having resection of coin lesions with adequate anti tuberculosis therapy.

The large focalized mass seen in two cases diameter over 5 cm. must be differentiated from a solid tumor of the lung or bronchogenic carcinoma. They frequently have the indefinite borders seen in certain cancers no cavitation is present and in one case the sputum was suspicious for cancer cells even though at the time of surgery no cancer was found. At the operating table this type of lesion is firm and with the marked adenopathy present with them suggests that lobectomy should be done prior to biopsy of the lesion.

Case Report. L.B. a 59 year old white male was admitted to Missouri State Sanatorium December 12 1956. He stated that he had had severe colds in the winters of 1955 and 1956 and had a productive cough for approximately five months. During the summer of 1956 he improved and had no symptoms referable to the respiratory tract. In the fall of 1956 he again had severe productive cough and complained of pain in the right chest. A roentgenogram revealed a dense mass in the right upper lung field (Fig. 1). Following his admission to Missouri State Sanatorium a right upper lobectomy was performed on December 20 1956. The GMS stains of resected lung tissue revealed *Histoplasma capsulatum*. The patient has been followed for 18 months and has returned to his normal work as a farmer. (Fig. 2 shows a similar lesion).

The third form of disease which we have seen which requires



Fig 1

pulmonary resection is the cavitary form of the chronic progressive type. This disease has been adequately described by Bunnell and Furcolow (8) and our group (15). If the cavitary component is localized, then lobectomy offers excellent results in selected cases.

In the cavitary type of this disease which has an extensive diffuse infiltration in both or one lung, surgical resection is not recommended until after adequate bed rest and regression of the disease has occurred. It has been our opinion from the observation of our own cases and from those in the literature that the spreads following pulmonary resection have occurred in this type of case especially if the resection is carried across diseased portions of the lung.

In certain instances the cavitary and infiltrative components of the disease are limited to one lung. This type of disease mimics the typically destroyed lung of pulmonary tuberculosis and in our opinion warrants pneumonectomy. We will eliminate a case report



Fig 2

here since this has been shown in previous articles and will present a destroyed lung case with the use of Amphotericin B therapy

In the re infection type of pulmonary histoplasmosis we also have a combination of bronchopulmonary involvement. This is a much rarer form of the disease than the pulmonary form which includes the focalized and cavitary process. Since this form of disease offers excellent results from pulmonary resection and since histoplasmosis seems to be on the increase and we feel that further such cases will be seen in the future we are including this in the text.

True bronchial stenosis as a result of this disease has been demonstrated in only one case in comparison to the numerous cases of bronchial stenosis which have been shown in pulmonary tuberculosis. We are unable to explain this pathological phe-

nomenon. Right upper lobectomy was performed in this case and complete recovery gained.

Case Report A K. 39 year old white male was admitted to Burge Hospital Springfield Missouri on October 18 1955. He stated that in September of 1955 he developed a severe cough pain in right chest and sensation of pressure in the right chest. He continued to work until October 15 1955 with the above symptoms persisting. A roentgenogram (Fig 3) revealed a large cystic lesion containing fluid in the right upper lung field. He was admitted to Burge Hospital for study. The histoplasmin skin test was positive. A tuberculin skin test was negative. Several sputum examinations were negative for acid fast organisms. Bronchoscopy was performed and a stenosis of the right upper lobe bronchus was observed. Smears from this area were negative for malignant cells. On October 20 1955 right upper lobectomy was performed. Sections of the upper lobe showed a

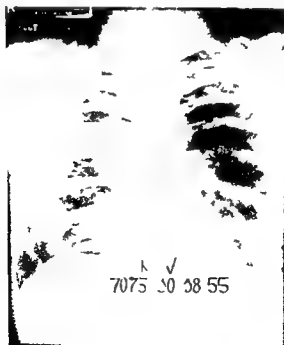


Fig 3

multiloculated cyst the largest measuring approximately 6 cm in diameter. The cyst linings were covered with a fibrous exudate. Sections of the upper lobe bronchus showed it to be obstructed completely obliterated by fibrous tissue. GMS stains revealed numerous organisms identified as *Histoplasma capsulatum*. The patient has returned to his normal occupation as a truck driver.

Bronchiectasis associated with pulmonary histoplasmosis and right middle lobe syndromes have been seen on several occasions in the past few years. It is our belief that the middle lobe syndromes occur from the adenopathy which destroys this lobe in the majority of cases although in one case very few nodes surrounding the bronchus were found while the bronchi were bronchiectatic and the lobe destroyed by fibrous tissue.

Case Report R.W. a 40 year old white female was admitted to Missouri State Sanatorium on January 6 1936. She stated she had coughed up small amounts of blood in 1915 and 1919. On December 14 1935 she coughed up approximately two cups of bright red blood and was admitted to Burge Hospital in Springfield Missouri. After bleeding was controlled bronchoscopy was done on December 20 1935. This revealed extensive bronchiectasis in the left lower lobe and lingula (Fig 4). She was transferred to Missouri State Sanatorium and on January 16 1936 left lower lobectomy and lingulectomy were performed. Tissue cultures from the operative specimen were reported positive for *Histoplasma capsulatum*. The organisms were also demonstrated in the tissue utilizing GMS stains. She has had no further evidence of hemoptysis and has resumed her activity as a housewife.

Two cases have been seen in which the organism *Histoplasma capsulatum* could be cultured from the empyema fluid thus establishing that this phase of the disease may occur also. The empyema in these cases was the result of a large bronchopleural fistula eroding from a large cavitory component and in both of these cases the pathological process took several years to develop. Two other cases have been seen in which an empyema was present but in which the organism *Histoplasma capsulatum* could not be demonstrated. In both of these cases however the histoplasmin skin test was strongly positive and the serological titer reached



Fig. 1

1128 In these latter two cases a Schede type of thoracoplasty over the empyema space resulted in apparent arrest of the disease

Case Report H T a 50 year old white male was admitted to Missouri State Sanatorium for the second time on July 13 1956. He had previously been a patient in this institution from January 1950 to May 5 1950. A diagnosis of pulmonary tuberculosis moderately advanced activity undetermined was made at that time although no acid fast organisms were found. Over the next few years the patient complained of weakness moderate dyspnea cough and edema of the lower extremities. His dyspnea finally became more marked and he was readmitted to Missouri State Sanatorium July 13 1956. X-ray at that time showed

marked progression over the previous film of 1950 (Figs 5 and 6). A large air space involving the upper two thirds of the left hemithorax and fluid levels over the diaphragm were present. A cavitory lesion was noted in the right apex. Repeated sputum examinations were reported negative for acid fast bacilli. Cultures from the sputum and the empyema fluid were reported positive for *Histoplasma capsulatum*. Patient was placed on Amebacide and Amphotericin B but did not tolerate this form of therapy. On September 19, 1956 he was taken to the operating room for exploration and possible thoracoplasty. A left pleuropneumonectomy was performed. The patient expired on September 29, 1956.

The above case presents two features of pulmonary histoplasmosis which we feel are of paramount importance. The first and probably the most significant is the progressive destructive nature of this disease. We do not agree with other authorities who feel that this is entirely a benign disease. The second is that the organism *Histoplasma capsulatum* definitely may be the etiology of an empyema.

Histoplasmosis with associated tuberculosis has occurred in

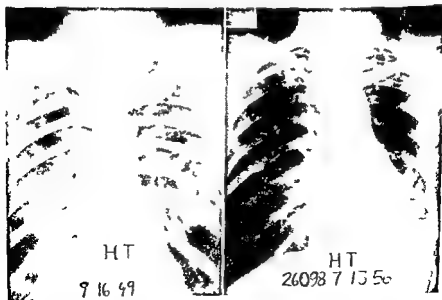


Fig 5

Fig 6

approximately twenty per cent of our cases. This includes the series of coin lesions and also the cavity phases of this disease. In all cases that had a positive culture for acid fast organisms prior to surgery the sputum became negative for this type of organism when adequately treated with antituberculosis therapy. Even though the sputum becomes negative for acid fast organisms radiologic improvement has not been manifested in some cases suggesting a second or underlying disease.

Case Report—A 30 year old white male was admitted to Missouri State Sanatorium on August 26, 1934. He stated that he had had progressive dyspnea, productive cough, weakness and poor appetite for five months prior to admission. Following his admission to Missouri State Sanatorium repeated sputum examinations were positive for acid fast organisms. The tuberculin skin test and histoplasmin skin test were positive. Serologic studies on September 17, 1934 were reported positive 1:16 in the complement fixation phase. After chemotherapy for his tuberculosis a left pneumonectomy was performed on January 18, 1936 (Fig. 7). Post resection thoracoplasty was then completed on February 8, 1936. Acid fast organisms were demonstrated in the resected lung tissue and numerous organisms identified as *Histoplasma capsulatum* were revealed by CMS stains. Patient continues in good health to the present time.

Within the past year we have seen approximately 15 cases which have left us in some doubt as to the virility and virulence of the organisms *Histoplasma capsulatum*. In each of these 15 cases numerous positive cultures for acid fast organisms have been reported. They all responded to antituberculous drug therapy and became negative prior to having surgical resection. In each of these cases the resected specimen has failed to yield acid fast organisms by stain and culture yet our pathologists have reported the organism *Histoplasma capsulatum* when the Gomori methenamine silver stain has been used. Stringently enough in all of these patients cultures for *Histoplasma capsulatum* have been negative. The exact role that the organism *Histoplasma capsulatum* plays in these cases is not fully understood by this author. Further speculation and studies will have to be done before any hypothesis can be given.

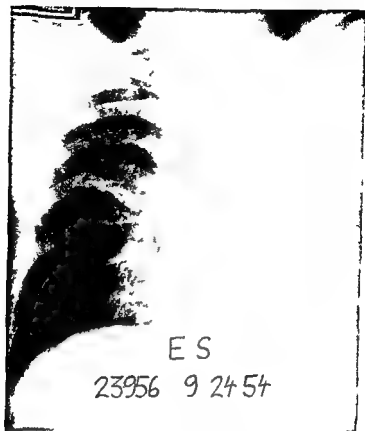


Fig 7

Trends in Treatment

To the present time pulmonary resection has offered the most definitive and successful form of therapy for pulmonary histoplasmosis. In spite of this several factors have presented a major deterrent to this form of therapy. First a postoperative spread of disease is feared by surgeons and many will not resect active cavity lesions. Secondly operating on a disease with an organism resistant to therapy is completely contrary to many sound surgical principals. For these reasons as well as control of the more fulminating forms of this disease many medicinals have been tested in the treatment of histoplasmosis.

Amphotericin B appears to be the anti fungal agent best suited

in the present treatment of histoplasmosis (16-17). In fact we are in the early stages of surgical therapy with histoplasmosis as we were in the early resection period for tuberculosis when only streptomycin was available.

Amphotericin B therapy appears to be promising from a surgical standpoint in several ways. First it definitely has been shown that sputum can be converted from positive to negative. Most of the patients whom we have followed have reverted to positive status however sometime after the drug is stopped. Secondly it appears to us to cause regression in infiltrative lesions although this is hard to evaluate since many infiltrative processes will improve with bed rest alone. Thirdly it seems to aid in the control of symptoms particularly cough.

Eight patients have had definitive surgical procedures after receiving various amounts of Amphotericin B. Six resections and two elective thoracoplasties have been completed. Postresection thoracoplasty and closure of a bronchopleural fistula was necessary following a left upper lobectomy and superior segmental resection. There was a questionable spread of disease following a second stage thoracoplasty.

The major weakness of this form of therapy in our opinion is failure definitely to affect the cavitory and fibrotic disease when it occurs.

Case Report H.M. 51 year old white male was admitted to Missouri State Sanatorium January 5, 1958*. In December 1957 he had complained of fever, severe cough with marked sputum and exertional dyspnea. The patient's symptoms did not improve with penicillin therapy. X-ray revealed diffuse disease throughout the entire right lung, several cavities being present. For this reason the patient was admitted to Missouri State Sanatorium (see Fig. 8). Following admission to the Sanatorium bronchoscopy was performed January 20, 1958. All studies for acid fast organisms were negative. Repeated cultures were positive for *Histoplasma capsulatum*. Amphotericin B therapy was started on January 23 and continued until May 5, 1958. A dose ranging from 25 mg daily given three times weekly

* This patient died in another hospital in November 1958 of a chronic pneumonia.



Fig 8

to 70 mg daily three times weekly was used. The patient's sputum converted to negative status around February 4 or three weeks after treatment was instituted. The right lung remained destroyed. On May 6, 1958, a right pleuropneumonectomy was performed. Patient tolerated this surgery well and was discharged May 28 to resume normal activity at home.

As previously stated and shown by this case we feel that Amphotericin B therapy will convert the sputum in the majority of these cases. At the time of pneumonectomy the right lung was destroyed. On cutting the specimen there were numerous stellate cavities measuring, 2 cm in greatest diameter. We do not feel that Amphotericin B would close this type of cavity.

TABULATION OF DATA

Because of the fact that there has been a paucity of resected cases for the various phases of pulmonary histoplasmosis we felt that it would be worthwhile to tabulate our data. Furcolow and Brasher (13) in a recent publication stated that only 16 cases of chronic progressive primary histoplasmosis had been reported. Polk and his group (12) had reported 21 cases of pulmonary histoplasmosis having had definitive surgical therapy.

To date we have performed varying surgical procedures on 29 patients presenting various pulmonary pathological processes the etiology of which was *Histoplasma capsulatum*. There have been 4 pleuropneumonectomies in this group. The one death which occurred is illustrated in the preceding portion of this text. The other 3 patients are living and well.

Twenty three patients were treated with pulmonary resection varying from subsegmental resections to lobectomy and segmental resection. There has been one death in this series from a pulmonary embolism on the tenth postoperative day. This was previously reported by our group. Two patients in this series have had relapses or spread of their disease varying from 9 months to 2 years. In both of these patients we were able to demonstrate the organism *Histoplasma capsulatum* in the sputum. One has received Amphotericin B therapy; the other is being evaluated for this form of therapy.

One patient had a left exploratory thoracotomy. However because of the extent of the disease which would have required a pneumonectomy with disease in the contralateral lung no definitive surgery was done. This patient had received MRD 112 prior to thoracotomy. He expired in irreversible shock 60 hours post operatively. Autopsy revealed an acute pseudomembranous enteritis with toxic hepatitis and toxic nephrosis. Also bilateral pulmonary histoplasmosis was demonstrated.

Of the remaining cases having had definitive surgical procedures results have been satisfactory. They have returned to normal life.

Two patients with positive sputum have had primary thoracoplasties as a definitive form of therapy. One patient had received

Amphotericin B until the sputum became negative following which a two stage thoracoplasty was done. This patient has subsequently died of a coronary occlusion. It is our opinion that this was a bad selection of cases due to extent of the disease and his low pulmonary reserve. The other patient done prior to Amphotericin B therapy has remained positive but continues to lead a quiescent life. We feel that his symptoms especially cough were reduced by the thoracoplasty. Two patients without positive sputum but with serologies varying from 1:64 to 1:128 had also received primary thoracoplasties. These two patients have subsequently returned to their homes. Both are in the 60 age group and have not returned to work at the present time.

It can easily be seen from the above remarks concerning thoracoplasty that few surgeons have had enough experience to evaluate this operation adequately in pulmonary histoplasmosis. We have used it as a secondary operation withholding it for the aged debilitated patient who has had bilateral extensive disease. Perhaps if thoracoplasty were used in the young group with unilateral localized disease results would be better.

In a series of 65 resections for coin lesions over a six year period 27 cases of granulomatous disease have been found proven to be histoplasmosis by demonstrating the organism in the tissue. It is interesting to note however in only 6 of these cases has the organism been cultured from the tissue. We have found the Periodic Acid Schiff stain and Gomori's methenamine silver stain to be very useful in this phase of the disease. There have been no operative deaths in this series and the entire group has returned to normal life.

In 4 of these 27 proven cases of histoplasmosis active pulmonary tuberculosis has also been demonstrated in conjunction with the histoplasmosis. In 11 of the remaining cases active pulmonary tuberculosis was demonstrated to be responsible for the coin lesion. We have therefore treated all patients who are to have surgery for a coin lesion with antituberculous therapy prior to and following resection. The interval prior to surgery has varied from 6 weeks to 48 hours. Postoperatively the patients demonstrated to have active tuberculosis have been treated with two years of antituberculous

therapy. We feel that this has been partially responsible for our having had no bronchopleural fistulae or complications in this series.

Twelve cases of pulmonary histoplasmosis in children, excluding the epidemic form, have been studied in the past 3 years. In all of these children there has been a strongly positive skin test and a high titer serological test. It has been on this basis that we have made the diagnosis of histoplasmosis since in none of these children have we been able to demonstrate the organism *Histoplasma capsulatum* in the sputum.

There have been 6 right middle lobe syndromes, 2 pneumonic processes, and 4 infiltrative type lesions. In each patient there has been an acute febrile course with marked cough and lassitude. In each of these patients the course has been self limited. We have used broad spectrum antibiotics in each case but do not feel that this form of therapy aided the course of the disease. It is our opinion, however, that in the exacerbations the antibiotics are helpful in controlling the secondary infection, consequently reducing fever and other symptoms.

Complete bronchoscopic studies have been performed in 5 of these patients. In 4 the middle lobe bronchus was stenotic due to external pressure. In none of these 4 cases could active disease be seen in the bronchial lumen. Attempts have been made to dilate the bronchus in each patient. Two patients followed for over 3 years have improved and the atelectasis in the middle lobe has disappeared. In 2 the middle lobe syndrome persists. We have elected to follow these children rather than perform middle lobectomy until more definitive knowledge can be gained concerning this type of disease.

Within the past year approximately 15 cases have had surgical resection at the Missouri State Sanatorium, presenting a somewhat complicated picture. In all of these cases the sputum was positive for acid fast bacilli on admission, both culture and direct smear. After reverting to a negative status on drug therapy, resection was done. Tissue studies then revealed no evidence of active pulmonary tuberculosis. In each of these cases organisms resembling *Histoplasma capsulatum* were demonstrated with the Gomori methena

mine silver stain. In all of these cases cultures were negative for histoplasmosis. At this time we are unable to make further comments concerning this since more study and followup will be needed upon this type of case. All are living and well.

The remaining cases mentioned in our classification will most probably be discussed in other sections of this text and will not be included in this group since no definitive surgical procedures were done.

SUMMARY

A classification based on surgical findings and cases of proven histoplasmosis is presented. The indications for surgery in pulmonary histoplasmosis are not definitely established due to the paucity of cases. We therefore utilized many of the established indications for resection in pulmonary tuberculosis to guide our selection of cases for surgery with this disease.

Surgical resection appears to offer the most definitive form of therapy at the present time. Further experiences will be needed before the final evaluation of Amphotericin can be established in the treatment of histoplasmosis.

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THE PLACE OF HISTOPLASMOSIS IN THE PRACTICE OF MEDICINE

JOHN H. SEABURY

In 1945 the medical practitioner was little concerned with histoplasmosis, considered then to be a rare and fatal disease. Within the next ten years the story of coccidioidomycosis was found to be largely true for histoplasmosis. In some states it was a more common infection than tuberculosis. Most cases were relatively mild or actually asymptomatic. Enough of the epidemiology and clinical characteristics had been recorded to permit the alert physician to suspect the disease early in its evolution. Skin test antigens and serologic diagnosis became readily available. When used intelligently these tools permitted the practitioner to make a reasonably certain diagnosis of active disease.

The good general practitioner, pediatrician and internist learns about diseases common in or peculiar to the geographic area as soon as he selects his location. There are significant differences in geographic distribution of many infectious diseases within the United States. Knowledge of these differences is essential to every day practice. The ease and frequency of travel has made this part of the patient's history both more important and more rewarding—if the physician is prepared to take advantage of it.

Although histoplasmosis is widely distributed its highest incidence in the United States is in those states bordering the Mississippi River basin. Physicians in this area should be well acquainted with histoplasmosis.

Elsewhere in the United States small focal areas of moderate to high endemicity exist. Awareness of the fact that small areas of infected soil may be present in regions supposedly free from the clinical disease may permit the inquisitive practitioner to correctly diagnose an isolated outbreak of virus pneumonia among adjoining farm families.

To the physician on the West Coast of the United States histoplasmosis is certainly no problem at present no indigenous cases having been reported. It is probably present but still unrecognized in some Western areas. More cases will be recognized in the Eastern States as those physicians who have been saying "We don't have it here" are replaced by those who look for it. In middle United States histoplasmosis should be a routine consideration in patients who present with acute or chronic pulmonary disease or granulomas of the skin or mucous membranes.

Just how important histoplasmosis is in the practice of medicine depends not only on geography and the natural morbidity and mortality of the disease but also upon the degree to which these latter factors can be modified by treatment and the frequency with which the infection is confused with other diseases of different importance. The consideration of some of these factors may help in recognizing the disease and assessing its importance.

AREAS OF HIGH ENDEMICITY

In areas of high endemicity such as the Mississippi Valley most cases of histoplasmosis will be primary infections among the young. Our present knowledge points to the soil particularly where enriched by chicken droppings as the major source of infection. Consequently one would expect the highest incidence among five to fifteen year-old children since this is the age group with greatest exposure to the soil while still non-immune. Newcomers from areas of low endemicity will also be particularly likely to have primary infections regardless of age.

Since primary histoplasmosis is usually mild and self limited is there any reason why the practitioner should make an especial effort to diagnose it? Is it not sufficient to recognize the few in whom the disease progresses chronically or disseminates acutely? There is insufficient knowledge at hand to answer these related questions factually but by combining what is known with conjectures derived from analogy to tuberculosis one can arrive at reasonably probable answers.

Primary histoplasmosis in infants seems to be accompanied by serious dissemination more often than in older children or adults.

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AREAS OF MODERATE ENDEMICITY

Relatively more adults will have primary histoplasmosis in areas of moderate incidence than in areas of high endemicity. Except for rare focal outbreaks coming from highly infected caves, old chicken yards and bat roosts, there is not likely to be acute (diffuse epidemic) pulmonary histoplasmosis in the area. The same complications of primary infection can be expected as in areas of high endemicity, but since the disease is less common, misdiagnosis will be more frequent.

Symptomatic primary and chronic reinfection histoplasmosis produce more morbidity in areas of moderate and low endemicity than they should. Failure to suspect the diagnosis and improper treatment is quite common. Even in areas of high endemicity, surveys of tuberculosis sanatoria reveal a significant number of patients who are being treated without bacteriologic confirmation. Many of them have been sent in by practitioners who have initiated antituberculous therapy on the basis of roentgenographic evidence or signs and symptoms without serologic or cutaneous testing for histoplasmosis, blastomycosis or coccidioidomycosis.

Confusion of primary and chronic progressive pulmonary histoplasmosis with tuberculosis may result in needless confinement, concern and prolonged misdirected antimicrobial treatment. Since specific antimicrobial therapy is available for both tuberculosis and the yeast-like fungus infections, accurate diagnosis has become essential to good practice and may actually assume medico-legal importance.

The practitioner in areas of high and moderate endemicity of histoplasmosis must have either positive bacteriologic evidence of tuberculosis or a positive tuberculin skin test and negative cutaneous, serologic and usually cultural studies for histoplasmosis before he should make a diagnosis of tuberculosis. This obviously is not applicable to the initiation of treatment for suspected miliary or meningeal tuberculosis.

These ethical and legal implications are sufficiently important to stimulate practitioners to demand better clinical pathologic mycology from their hospitals (which by and large are grossly inadequate in this field) and to become fully cognizant of the indi-

The situation may be likened to primary tuberculosis in infants. It is probable that histoplasmosis in infants should be treated antimicrobially rather than expectantly.

Acute (epidemic diffuse) pulmonary histoplasmosis is associated with massive inhalational infection and is more likely to be seen in areas of high endemicity where heavily infected soils are present (caves, old chicken coops and yards, bat roosts). Even though rarely fatal, this form of the disease produces severe illness and often prolonged asthenia. It is desirable in my opinion to treat this clinical type of histoplasmosis with specific antimicrobials if the diagnosis can be suspected early. Treatment should be instituted before mycologic or serologic diagnosis is possible so that suspicion and careful history taking are essential. This form of histoplasmosis needs study to determine whether it can alter significantly the function of the lungs and liver. Extensive fibrotic lesions may remain in these organs after the infection has subsided. Healing by fibrosis may be more detrimental to visceral function than recovery with multiple calcified areas of necrosis.

Primary infection in children and adolescents other than the acute pulmonary (epidemic) form is commonly unrecognized because of its mildness. Those with moderately severe primary infections are usually correctly diagnosed or thought to have either tuberculosis or virus pneumonia.

The primary infection in children and adults needs long term statistical study relative to the frequency and severity of complications and the advisability of restricting activity or antimicrobially treating the active phase of the illness. It is known that the primary infection may be complicated by obstructive atelectasis which may give rise to bronchiectasis or lung abscess. The frequency of these complications is not known nor is the effect of limiting activity in their prevention. The mediastinal nodes are sometimes involved and serious obstructive mediastinitis may result. It is probable that primary infections accompanied by extensive lymphadenopathy in the mediastinum or by compression of a bronchus should be antimicrobially treated. It is likewise probable that symptomatic care alone is sufficient for most primary infections of children and adults. There are sufficient cases in areas of high endemicity to permit statistical study of these problems.

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tion which persists during weeks of observation who has negative bacteriologic and mycologic studies of the sputum and fasting gastric contents and definite cutaneous reactions to tuberculin and histoplasmin is rare and not true challenge. In such a dilemma

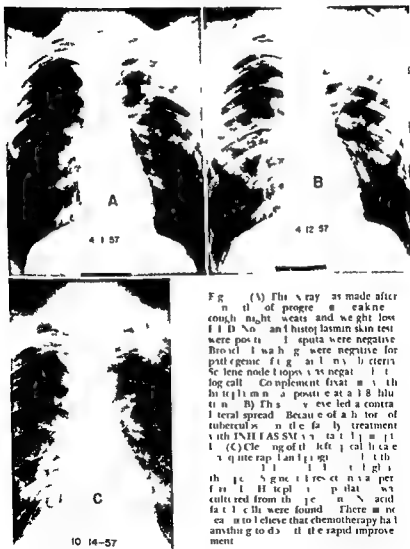


Fig. 1. (A) This X-ray was made after 2 months of progressive weakness, cough, night sweats and weight loss. F.T.D. No. 1 and histoplasmin skin test were positive. Sputa were negative. Bronchial washings were negative for pathogenic fungi and mycobacteria. Scrofula node biopsy was negative. Histologic call. Complement fixation with histoplasmin was positive at a 1:8 dilution. (B) This X-ray revealed a contralateral spread. Because of a history of tuberculosis, the failure of treatment with INH, IAS, SM, and streptomycin. (C) Cleavage of the left pulmonary caecum quite rapidly. In the first 2 months of the illness, the patient's general condition was poor. Histoplasmin test was positive. Cultured from the patient's sputum, acid fast bacilli were found. There is no reason to believe that chemotherapy had anything to do with the rapid improvement.

cations, methods, and materials needed for the laboratory diagnosis of the mycoses. Fig. 1 illustrates the consequences of inadequate laboratory diagnosis.

Confusion or uncertainty of diagnosis cannot always be prevented. The patient who presents with apical pulmonary infiltra-



Fig. 1. (A) This x-ray was made after 7 months of fatigability and cough and one month of fever. Numerous sputa were reported negative for acid fast bacilli and pathogenic fungi. Bronchoscopy was normal. Symptoms continued in the past and were referred to a highly reputable clinic and hospital in another state where all studies were reported without finding an etiological agent. Exploratory thoracotomy with biopsy of the left lung revealed a chronic granuloma which was not further diagnosed. (B) After returning home symptoms continued and this x-ray showed an extensive contralateral spread. (C) Cavitation of both upper lobes was present when this x-ray was taken. He was referred to a third hospital where histoplasma were easily found in sputum and washings from the previously biopsied lung. Three hospitalizations, 19 months major chest surgery, and economic catastrophe due primarily to inadequate local laboratories.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS COMMON TO ALL AREAS OF HISTOPLASMOSIS

Many of the clinical problems associated with histoplasmosis owe their existence to failure of clinicians to suspect the presence of the disease. Familiarity with clinical forms of histoplasmosis will do much to increase suspicion and orderly attempts to establish the diagnosis. In addition the practitioner needs to refresh his knowledge of microscopic pathology not for the purpose of supplanting the pathologist but rather to properly interpret the pathologist's report and to argue with him when indicated.

Whatever his formal knowledge may be the American practitioner seems to associate the histopathologic designation "chronic granuloma" with tuberculous foreign bodies and perhaps syphilis. Forgotten are the many causes of chronic granulation tissue. Instead of representing a diagnostic challenge this simple tissue diagnosis is likely to be accepted as an answer. Unfortunately the presence of multinucleate giant cells and especially caseation necrosis is often sufficient to lead the pathologist to unwarranted assumptions. The practitioner must remember that he like the surgeon in the operating room is responsible for the diagnosis and treatment of his patient. He must know what is required for a diagnosis and he must find out if these requirements have been met. In their efforts to be helpful to the clinician both pathologists and radiologists often report that a process seen by x-ray or in the microscope is suggestive of tuberculosis, sarcoidosis or some other specific process. Too many practitioners assume that these suggestions are fairly specific diagnoses and proceed accordingly.

No matter what the histologic pattern of a granuloma may be search for etiologic agents should be undertaken. It is best when the clinician insists that a generous portion of a biopsy be separated before fixation and sent on sterile gauze or in sterile saline for cultural and animal inoculation. Diagnosis can be made sometimes by special staining but the tendency to rely on tissue diagnosis without culture or animal inoculation should be resisted vociferously and firmly.

Another American fallacy is the dictum that a single diagnosis should be made to answer all the findings of the history and physi-

the practitioner may resort to a therapeutic trial. This is sound practice but it is quite fallacious to attach any diagnostic importance to a favorable response. Fig. 2 illustrates this problem.

AREAS OF LOW ENDEMICITY

At the present time the extent and position of areas of low endemicity is not well known. Until the epidemiology of histoplasmosis is more completely studied one cannot be certain of the importance of animal reservoirs either in the infection of man or in maintenance of and extension of focal areas of soil contamination. The apparent similarity between histoplasmosis and coccidioidomycosis would make one believe that wherever animal histoplasmosis is found human cases will be discovered. This does not imply any particular correlation between the density of animal and human infection. At any rate present knowledge suggests to many students of histoplasmosis that areas of low endemicity will be characterized by few focal points of soil contamination rather than by a generally low soil count or scarcity of animal infection.

In areas of low endemicity few physicians will encounter clinical cases of histoplasmosis and a poor diagnostic record is to be expected. The cases most likely to be recognized are those chronic progressive adult cases with granulomas of the mucous membranes or other biopsiable sites. Infection may occur at any age since immunity is not acquired by childhood primary disease. Cases may be multiple within a single rural family if heavy exposure at a focal point occurs. By seeking such a history (e.g. clearing way in abandoned chicken coop) the alert physician may find the disease in supposedly uninfected areas. The pathologist who carefully studies all biopsy and necropsy material of a granulomatous nature with special stains is likewise in an excellent position to uncover new areas of histoplasmosis.

Fortunately for medicine there are many obsessive and compulsive physicians who always do skin tests with histoplasmin, blastomycin and coccidioidin rather than just tuberculin. If a positive reaction is investigated new areas of infection may be found and in areas of low endemicity a focal point may be uncovered.

Such patients may improve during the first few days of bed rest and antibiotic therapy the improvement generally being attributed to the antibiotic. The initial improvement with supposedly specific treatment frequently gives the practitioner a feeling of confidence in the diagnosis. Indeed when the subsequent course of the patient is not as satisfactory reculturing may result in the judgment that the patient now has superinfection by bacteria insensitive to the antibiotic prescribed for the initial illness. Such errors are not entirely avoidable but may obscure the true nature of the infection. Simple microscopic study of sputum smears stained by the Cram or Wright methods prior to the institution of antimicrobial therapy would prevent some of these mistakes. Pyogenic bacteria are associated with an abundance of polymorphonuclear leucocytes in the exudate when they are producing disease a definite predominance of the offending organism can be seen in stained smears during the early stage of clinical symptoms. The presence of many macrophages lymphocytes and alveolar cells with only a small or moderate number of polymorphonuclear leucocytes is unlikely to be associated with acute staphylococcal pneumococcal or streptococcal disease. Unfortunately modern practice rarely includes microscopic examination of the sputum by the physician himself. The cellular exudate in the sputum of patients with chronic progressive cavitary histoplasmosis frequently contains a fairly equal distribution between polymorphonuclear and so-called round cells.

In recent years there has been a growing interest in the solitary well margined round or oval density in the lung fields. When of appropriate size these are often referred to as coin lesions. This type of lesion is rarely diagnosed by any type of laboratory study of the sputum or bronchial washings. The etiology of these lesions is quite variable. In some of the reported series carcinoma has been a very important cause whereas in others it has been much less prominent. Histoplasmosis and other mycotic infections may produce single or multiple coin lesions. Histoplasmoses rarely contain culturable *Histoplasma* at the time they are removed and are generally considered benign. One instance of central liquefaction and concomitant spread is known to the author.

Coin lesions that are due to chronic infectious granulomas

cal examination providing the majority of the laboratory studies are consistent. Such a statement tacitly assumes that each disease is clinically unlike all other diseases and disregards the fact that disease of one system or organ predisposes to other diseases of the same tissues. The practitioner may be content with a single *proven* diagnosis so long as the course and response to treatment is as expected. Some errors will be made but these are pardonable. Histoplasmosis and other mycoses should be considered when the patient's course or response to treatment is atypical of the diagnosis. This applies to patients with infection, neoplasia or collagen disease. Mycotic infection occurs with increased frequency among diabetics just as does tuberculosis. Tuberculosis and a deep mycosis are common companions in my experience.

There are two situations which are particularly challenging to the practitioner: the appearance of a mycosis during prolonged antibiotic treatment for another disease and confusing an acutely progressing systemic mycosis with bacterial infection.

Although *Candidiasis* appears to be the most frequent fungus infection complicating prolonged antibacterial treatment, histoplasmosis should be watched for in its endemic areas. This situation is most likely to arise in debilitated patients who have had dormant primary disease. The endogenous reinfection is likely to be insidious and mistaken for either an exacerbation of or the development of resistance by the primary disease. The physician should be particularly alert to the possibility of this complication during the management of children with chronic pulmonary infections and chronic cystic fibrosis. This complication is almost equally dangerous in the antibiotic treatment of the aged.

Acute pulmonary histoplasmosis and progressive febrile histoplasmosis may be diagnosed as bacterial infections at least during their early evolution. The presence of constitutional manifestations and pulmonary findings suggestive of an infectious process leads to culture of the throat and sputum. If a bacterial pathogen is reported such as the *Pneumococcus*, *Hemophilus influenzae* or staphylococci and streptococci, the illness may be attributed to the bacterial pathogen. Unfortunately the presence of such bacteria do not necessarily indicate that disease is being produced by them.

persistent in seeking the cause of granulomas and chronic pulmonary disease may derive much satisfaction from correctly diagnosing and treating a disease which is rare in his community.

In all areas there must be continued education of all physicians in the proper care and disposition of the biopsy. Dentists, oral surgeons, otorhinolaryngologists, dermatologists, gynecologists and general practitioners must be urged to biopsy persistent lumps, bumps and sores, and to see that culture or animal inoculation is a part of the study of the biopsy. Pathologists and hospital administrators frequently resist animal inoculation as a diagnostic method on the basis of economics and the difficulty of the animal care. Nevertheless, inoculation of hamsters or young mice is the single laboratory procedure most likely to result in a definite diagnosis of histoplasmosis. Clinical pathologists and bacteriologists must improve their own knowledge of medical mycology and greatly improve the training of the Registered Medical Technologist. Etiology cannot be established for all granulomatous processes, but the up-to-date pathologist can inform the practitioner of (1) the facilities available locally and through the various Health Services and (2) the materials which must be submitted. Only two things are necessary: an enlightened pathologist and a conscientious practitioner willing to ask.

usually require laminar or granular deposits of calcium with aging. Despite the fact that calcium may occur in neoplastic coin lesions this is so rare as to be of little practical importance. However calcium deposits in lung anterior or posterior to the coin lesion itself may appear to be within it in a routine chest x ray. It is my own practice to consider all coin lesions which show definite calcium depositions by laminography as non neoplastic in origin. I believe that this is adequate grounds for observing such lesions rather than removing them surgically.

The early development of histoplasmosis may be accompanied by an elevated complement fixation titer and a positive histoplasmin skin test. During quiescence the complement fixation reaction probably disappears quite rapidly although there is insufficient statistical study of this process to permit definite statement. Again in my own practice a coin lesion in children or young adults with a positive histoplasmin coccidioidin or blastomycin skin test is kept under periodic observation even though it does not contain calcium. Fortunately most histoplasmosis in middle aged or elderly adults contain calcium.

The place of histoplasmosis in the practice of medicine will depend primarily upon geography and specialty. Physicians should be familiar with the disease in areas of high endemicity and correct diagnosis should be made as a rule by general practitioners, pediatricians and internists. In areas of high endemicity the frequency of coin lesions demands that the surgeon be familiar with this form of the disease.

In areas of moderate endemicity the pediatrician and internist should arrive at the diagnosis in most patients with active disease. These specialists should be correct in their presumptive diagnosis of most chronic lesions and symptomatic primary infections. The general practitioner should know that the disease occurs within his area and how to look for it. For him proper diagnosis or suspicion resulting in later diagnosis by others should be both rewarding and stimulating.

In areas of low endemicity correct diagnosis is likely to remain principally with the pathologist and bacteriologist who is adequately trained in mycology. However the practitioner who is

In the yeast phase there is considerable variation in size but the average is $11\frac{1}{2}$ microns \times $3\frac{1}{2}$ microns. Under different conditions there may be great variation in size. One pole is usually pointed where buds form or where buds are prone to appear but buds may form at either pole or sometimes apolar around the walls. Small refractile oil droplets are present in the walls with small refractile granules in the cytoplasm undergoing Brownian movement. The nucleus is usually a crescent shaped mass around the bud at the periphery. When it divides part goes into the bud and part remains in the body of the yeast.

The nature of African histoplasmosis is described and has been designated as *H. Duboisii*. This strain or variety is occasionally found here. Usually the forms are larger than the common type of *H. capsulatum*.

The author goes into the many physiological reactions of the fungus with regard to sources of the elements in metabolism, production of acid gas and the H ion concentration under different circumstances.

The chapter by Dr. Emmons begins with the pertinent statement that the sporadic occurrence of histoplasmosis without evidence of contagion suggested that there might be a reservoir in nature. He confirmed this suspicion by culturing *H. capsulatum* from soil and demonstrating microconidia in the first two positive soil specimens. The author describes the technique of isolation from the soil.

In an area of northern Virginia where there was a high incidence of positive skin reactions and calcifications in human beings on the very 31% of the rats were found to have histoplasmosis and 14% of healthy dogs and cats were found with *H. capsulatum* in their lymph nodes but without demonstrable lesions. The first samples of soil found positive were found at the entrance of a rat burrow near a chicken coop which pointed to the association with old chicken droppings rather than to the rats as the source of the fungus. Further studies revealed that fresh chicken manure in well kept chicken houses did not reveal any fungus. This indicates that the time factor, drying factor or something else enters into the process.

SUMMARY

For the convenience of the casual reader as well as for those who wish to select certain chapters for study it was deemed expedient to summarize briefly even if incompletely the chapters which do not have a summary prepared by the author.

The first two chapters do not need an extensive summary. The introduction by Dr. Meleney is a combination of scientific data, history, and personal experiences in the early development of the knowledge of histoplasmosis. An interesting part is a brief history of Dr. Darling's life with many personal overtones. There is naturally some overlapping with Dr. Baum's chapter on history but there are so many interesting personal touches that the slight duplication is an attraction rather than objectionable.

The chapter by Dr. Baum on the history of histoplasmosis needs no further comment as all is said and well said in the text.

Dr. Pine's presentation of the morphological and physiological characteristics of *H. capsulatum* is remarkably complete. He has described the dual phase of the microorganism and tells how to grow them. The mycelial phase grows best at 25-30°C on blood media but tuberculated spores form best on Sabouraud's glucose agar. Mycelial growth does not grow well at 37° at which temperature the culture tends to be transformed into the yeast phase.

The various forms that appear due to different media and difference in H ion concentration, temperature, and age are between rather wide limits. Some are very large and bizarre, others are small and less conspicuous. The macroconidia form at room temperature on mycelial projections and average from 5-15 microns in diameter and usually become tuberculated, characterized by many short hair-like protrusions from the walls of the spore. The microconidia are only 2-6 microns in diameter and they may form from large or small hyphae. They are not tuberculated. The microconidia may develop into the macroconidia. The tuberculated spore is accepted as the best means of a certain diagnosis of histoplasmosis.

In the yeast phase there is considerable variation in size but the average is $11\frac{1}{2}$ microns \times $3\frac{3}{4}$ microns. Under different conditions there may be great variation in size. One pole is usually pointed where buds form or where buds are prone to appear but buds may form at either pole or sometimes apolar around the walls. Small refractile oil droplets are present in the walls with small refractile granules in the cytoplasm undergoing Brownian movement. The nucleus is usually a crescent shaped mass around the bud at the periphery. When it divides part goes into the bud and part remains in the body of the yeast.

The nature of African histoplasmosis is described and has been designated as *H. Duboisii*. This strain or variety is occasionally found here. Usually the forms are larger than the common type of *H. capsulatum*.

The author goes into the many physiological reactions of the fungus with regard to sources of the elements in metabolism, production of acid gas and the H ion concentration under different circumstances.

The chapter by Dr. Immons begins with the pertinent statement that the sporadic occurrence of histoplasmosis without evidence of contagion suggested that there might be a reservoir in nature. He confirmed this suspicion by culturing *H. capsulatum* from soil and demonstrating microconidia in the first two positive soil specimens. The author describes the technique of isolation from the soil.

In an area of northern Virginia where there was a high incidence of positive skin reactions and calcifications in human beings on the x ray 31% of the rats were found to have histoplasmosis and 14% of healthy dogs and cats were found with *H. capsulatum* in their lymph nodes but without demonstrable lesions. The first samples of soil found positive were found at the entrance of a rat burrow near a chicken coop which pointed to the association with old chicken droppings rather than to the rats as the source of the fungus. Further studies revealed that fresh chicken manure in well kept chicken houses did not reveal any fungus. This indicates that the time factor, drying factor or something else enters into the process.

There were reported many other sources of *H. capsulatum* both in animals and in the soil. Pigeon bird and bat manure were productive of positive results. Various types of soil and organic material is found in old silos, river bottoms, dirt floor of meat houses, and caves were found to contain *H. capsulatum*. Other possible factors are prevailing winds, river basins, and valleys. The author points out the biological advantage of a free living resistant saprophytic form that resists heat, cold, and drying over the delicate and sensitive parasitic form that is extremely vulnerable to these various factors.

In the chapter on geographic distribution Ajello establishes the fact that histoplasmosis has been reported from every large region of the world except Russia and China. Although the greatest incidence has been found in central United States there is no certainty that other regions of the earth may not also be heavily seeded with the fungus providing suitable search is made for it.

The author tabulates the reports of findings of *H. capsulatum* in soil and in wild and domestic animals in widely scattered parts of the world, although most of the reports are from the United States.

He also cites references to many proven cases outside the United States and Canada.

The chapter on laboratory diagnostic procedures by Larsh reveals how involved the finding of *H. capsulatum* has become. Even with the most meticulous technique isolation of the fungus is not always achieved.

Culture methods for the first attempt at isolation include blood media, several of which are available and Sabouraud's. It is most essential that antibiotics including penicillin, streptomycin, chloramphenicol, and actidione be used to control the secondary contaminants that infest most specimens.

The tissue phase or yeast phase as produced in animals is necessary for some strains where there are few cells or where there is uncontrollable contamination. By use of one of several acceptable blood media the yeast phase may be recovered and it then may be re-inoculated back on other media or in HeLa cells.

The appearance of the colonies on the various media are

described as well as the use of various animals for inoculation which are required for best results. These methods are well presented.

The use of strains, the polariscope, the fluorescent antibody technique in identifying the yeasts when they are found.

On the problem of immunity against histoplasmosis, Salvin states that a sublethal infection of *H. capsulatum* will induce protection in animals such as mice, guinea pigs, and dogs, although the basis of the protection is not yet known. The immunizing infection does not eliminate the pathogen but restricts its growth especially in certain organs.

Evidence points to the fact that resistance develops in human beings also. Epidemics of the disease have been noted to occur in areas of low skin reactivity in people coming from low sensitivity levels or in people with negative skin reactions as shown by conversion from negative to positive histoplasmin reaction during the epidemic.

Mice vaccinated with killed yeast cells withstood infection even cerebral infections better than the controls. Living cells protect better than dead cells. The protective power seems to lie in the cell wall and not in the protoplasm fraction of the cells. Precipitins and complement fixing antibodies do not play any role in resistance.

Humoral antibodies could not be shown to play any role in resistance although more extensive work is needed to bear this out. There is no evidence that agammaglobulinemia causes any increase in the susceptibility to yeast infection.

The mechanism of increased resistance may have some relationship to the phagocytosis as shown by use of P32 laden cells. There is probably an increased capacity of its macrophages to engulf and thus inhibit the growth of the fungus.

There is a definite natural resistance as shown by the great increase in serious infections in infants, much less in old age, and lowest in the teen age period. There is need for research in attempt to develop an effective vaccine against the disease.

On epidemiology Furcolow reiterates what was said about the noncontagiousness of histoplasmosis. Epidemiologically the production of spores by the millions and billions makes easy dissemination

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Dr Tenenberg's article on serological reactions has a complete summary which may be referred to (p 168)

The histoplasmin reaction is given by Drs Palmer and Edwards reveals what a valuable tool it is for finding infections by *H capsulatum*. They give the methods of preparation standardization stability dosage and means of applying histoplasmin. There seems to be a considerable amount of cross reaction with coccidioidin much more so than a cross reaction of coccidiomycosis with histoplasmin. Attempts at isolation of the active principal thus far have only been partially successful.

The histoplasmin reaction is much like that of tuberculin. It makes its appearance in four to six weeks after infection and seems to last for years and decades.

For an idea of the location of an endemic area of the world the map in Fig 1 (p 198) should be consulted. Histoplasmin sensitivity is highly prevalent in parts of America with scattered low prevalence areas in some regions in Africa and Southeast Asia.

A more detailed map of the United States is shown in Fig 2. As others have mentioned the central part of the country especially along the big rivers contains the highest incidence of skin reactivity to histoplasmin.

Geographic location is of far more significance than other factors such as race sex and occupation. There is a slightly higher incidence in males over 12 years than in females higher in whites than in Negroes and higher in rural than in urban populations.

The authors point out the difficulty in separating out infected from non infected on the basis of the size of the particular skin reaction especially in the midzones where the reaction may be either positive or negative. The x ray is some help in indicating infectivity by the presence of calcifications. In the study of students shown in Fig 1 14% of students having a reaction of 11 mm or more have pulmonary findings while only 0.3 of 1% have pulmonary findings with reactions less than 11 mm. They show also how the cross reactions with coccidiomycosis casts a doubt on many of the statistics for histoplasmosis.

The methods of staining have been well given by Drs Mowbray and Frenkel. The authors go into the development chemistry and

tion by the air. The resistance to drying heat and physical conditions perpetuates the survival of any particular fungus. Some fungi produce antibiotics which help to protect the species. Weather changes such as temperature and humidity affect the life and spread of fungi of many types. Localized existence of certain fungi are known perhaps the most noted to date is coccidiomycosis.

H. capsulatum does not produce a great number of large tuberculated spores but the small spores are produced in infinite numbers and are viable for long intervals in the soil. The latter are small enough to enter readily into the respiratory tract going down as far as the alveoli.

The infection rate along rivers and valleys is an important characteristic of *H. capsulatum* as well as the zonal localization. Certain soils notably the red yellow podzolic soils have been proposed by Zeidberg as a contributing factor to an increase in *H. capsulatum* but there are many exceptions to this soil theory. Emmons has suggested that certain animals may cause the limit of spread of the disease because of their restricted location. Birds have been thought of but so many birds migrate that it is hard to accept this theory. Water and rivers have been suggested as a means of spread and the growth on certain plants but nothing has yet been definitely established. Bird manure is different since 88% of epidemics have been related to this possible source of the parasite.

The common denominator for growths of the fungus has been found to be an optimum temperature and a relatively high humidity. The most heavily involved area coincides with the greatest number of days of the year between 60 and 90° temperature in region having relatively high humidity.

The relationship of winds especially tornadoes to the spread of the disease as in coccidiomycosis seems to have some merit but a more important feature is what the author considers a source point such as chicken coops pigeon lofts bat roosts etc. These source points correspond with many surveys that have been conducted.

Many of the infections of the body tend to begin in the lung but a few gastrointestinal infections have been reported.

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The methods of staining have been well given by Drs Mowbray and Frenkel. The authors go into the development chemistry and

technology of the various stains for the demonstration of fungi especially *H. capsulatum* in tissues. They point out the fact that this fungus is more difficult to demonstrate under most conditions than ordinary fungi.

They trace the development of the various methods most of which are based on the old Schiff reaction of long ago. They credit Illie, McManus, Hotchkiss & McManus, Bauer, Gridley which is a modified Bauer method, Kligman most of whom have had some role in the development of the PAS stain or other stains of a like nature. The two most common reducing agents have been Periodic Acid and Chromic acid. As with most others who have worked in this field they emphasize the superiority of the methenamine silver method originated by Gomori for mucin and later applied to yeast by Grocott. The technical details of the various stains particularly the latter are given with great minuteness. They undoubtedly will serve a good purpose for those who are not familiar with the method.

The authors describe the differentiation of other common fungi from *H. capsulatum*.

The chapter on pathogenesis of histoplasmosis in animals by Procknow reviews the literature on the subject and reports his own studies concerning the changes in the macroconidia that take place on being inoculated into the lungs of mice. The author states that most infections are considered to be by the respiratory tract due to an inhalation of spores which are converted to the yeast forms in the lung and become disseminated by the blood stream to organs rich in reticulo endothelial cells. Such organs include the liver, spleen, bone marrow and adrenals.

The author reports the first reaction as described by Brandt. The first noticeable effect was a polymorphonuclear leukocytic invasion. By 48 hours the macrophages had become predominant. By the sixth to the tenth day a granulomatous lesion with reticulo endothelial elements predominated. Only a few polymorphonuclear leukocytes, lymphocytes, plasma cells and Langhans giant cells remained. Fibrous tissue later surrounded the area. Healing had begun by the 12th day with an increase in plasma cells, fibrocytes and a diminishing number of reticulo-endothelial cells. Yeast cells became absent by the 31st day.

Pure mycelial inoculations were converted to the yeast phase within one week. Inoculations of chlamydospores resulted in phagocytosis by multinucleated giant cells during the first few days. Reticuloendothelial hyperplasia was present. Some free spores were surrounded by polymorphs and most of the spores showed degeneration. After a week the chromatin of the spores became rearranged to form yeast cells. The cell wall ruptured and the free yeast cells were engulfed by macrophages.

The experimental work is given by all routes of inoculation in various animals.

The author's own work tried the spores inoculated intranasally into the lungs of mice from the large chlamydospores to the yeast forms. Within four days dissemination had reached the spleen. By two weeks widespread reticuloendothelial dissemination had taken place. The spores were usually small enough to enter the bronchioles and alveoli.

Even after six hours the spores were seen without any cellular reaction but there was a gradual increase of cells first polymorphs and other cells afterwards. After 15 to 24 hours the inflammation increased but still remained localized. Many spores remained well preserved even after 36 hours. Polymorphs began to degenerate and become replaced by epithelioid cells. By 48 hours there was an internal trabeculation of the spores which became well developed by 72 hours. From three to five days defects appeared in the walls and yeast like material bulged through the defects into the parenchyma. These cells were then phagocytized by macrophages. This process continued until the seventh day when all spores had disappeared.

The pathogenesis of histoplasmosis in man is only partly understood. The beginning of the infection as so well shown by Procknow in animals and the nature of some of the chronic forms are still quite speculative in human infection. The progressive fulminating type originally described by Darling is about the only form that is known from the beginning of the yeast invasion to the end of the process. There is a marked parallelism to the progressive forms of tuberculosis yet there are many points of difference such as a greater tendency to calcification, greater dissemination of calci-

fied lesions in the spleen and a general tendency for the lymph nodes to enlarge more than in most tuberculous infections

In the chronic forms of the disease there are several unknown features that have yet to be explained. One for example is the presence of typical yeast bodies in encapsulated lesions some of which reveal great age even in bone formation. In a few instances of encapsulated and calcified lesions these sheltered yeasts seem to have been responsible for exacerbation of the disease but exacerbation from very old lesions is as yet doubtful.

A most enigmatic aspect is the role of small microspores that seem to be residues of a budding in the yeast bodies. Many of these small spores range in size from 0.3 to 0.6 microns and sometimes show birefringence as do the larger yeasts. They seem to arise from the yeasts usually in the process of disintegration. A bud begins to form in the pointed end or some other place around the wall of the yeast and while it is in the process of formation the yeast body is disintegrated and the bud rapidly forms into a microspore which seems to contain elements of the original yeast body. The mechanism of this change has been described by Pine in his chapter. If these small bodies can be shown to possess viability it may be another means of prolonging the viability of the parasites after the mother cells are destroyed. Proof of this theoretical concept is still lacking but it will bear study.

The primary lesion as described by Schwarz states that only recently has knowledge of the primary lesion of histoplasmosis been described. It has been found to conform to Parrot's law of similar adenopathies as does primary tuberculosis. The nature of the lesion is also similar to tuberculosis. Frequently there are satellites around the main focus. It is not known whether the primary lesion progresses as does primary tuberculosis or not but it is altogether likely that it does.

The author describes in detail the evolutions of the primary lesion of bronchopneumonia: phagocytosis of the yeast by histiocytes, histiocytic proliferation, epithelioid cell tubercles with caseous centers filled with polymorphonuclear cells although the latter are not dominant. Many of the minor features are listed as the lesions become older. The lesions are seldom small calcium

is usually chalky stippled and rock hard even with yeast present. All of these features differ from those of tuberculosis. There is a systemic dissemination as indicated by calcific lesions in the spleen and to a less degree the liver. The lobar localization of these primary lesions have been tabulated.

The small focus is otherwise similar to tuberculosis but the large focus differs in that there is complete destruction of all tissues including the elastic fibers in the center with an increase of fibrosis toward the periphery. There is a merging of the center (necrosis) with a heavily hyalinized capsule around the outside. The large focus may spread by incorporating collateral inflammation and thus tend to explain the concentric rings that are seen in some lesions.

Lymph nodes become more enlarged in histoplasmosis than in tuberculosis. They may cause compression of bronchi resulting in bronchiectasis, atelectasis or emphysema. They may rupture and produce hemorrhage.

The author is of the opinion that some of the round lesions described by Puckett are primary lesions but probably not all. Multiple primary foci may and do exist as in tuberculosis.

Puckett describes the large round lesion that is frequently found in histoplasmosis. This intrapulmonary nodule is a form that he calls a histoplasmoma in keeping with terms applied to tuberculosis and coccidiomycosis. These lesions are scattered in all lung lobes corresponding to the scattering of primary lesions in tuberculosis. Some however may be infection lesions.

They vary in size from 0.5 to 3 1/2 cm in diameter. They may be round or ovoid. They are usually subpleural with a heavy round or ovoid white or yellowish pleural plaque fused to one side of the fibrotic process. There may be satellites in the adjacent pleura. These lesions are sharply demarcated from surrounding lung parenchyma. The author calls attention to a wedge of heavy fibrous tissue that usually extends into the center of the lesion which he terms the keystone. Concentric formations are common which give the lesion a laminated appearance. Soft centers may be present in the interior of each lesion where the parasites are found. The parasites are brought out by special stains but cannot be grown on the culture methods that are used at present. Artefacts are many.

and must be ruled out before any diagnosis is made. The incidence of these round lesions vary geographically but in endemic areas they constitute 50% or more of the round lesions that are found on x ray.

The general pathology of histoplasmosis is one of the most recent of the many phases of the disease to be described. Until the last few years the only lesions known were those resulting from disseminated disease. Most of these lesions were in the organs rich in reticulo endothelial cells: lymph nodes, spleen, liver, adrenals and so forth. At first there was little caseation but later caseation developed. In some perifocal areas there were granulomatous lesions with epithelioid cells and Langhans giant cells.

In the chronic forms of the disease it is almost exclusively reticulo endothelial and granulomatous type of inflammation with a scarcity of neutrophils, plasma cells and lymphocytes. Only occasionally are polymorphonuclears found and they possibly are a result of some complication. Of the various organs the adrenals are commonly and severely involved in a caseous necrosis. The spleen, lymph nodes, liver, bone marrow are also involved with necrosis and granulomatous type inflammation. Necrotic lesions may be formed in the lungs, kidneys, brain and heart valves.

The lung lesions are especially important for they are the principal ones in chronic disease, much like that in tuberculosis.

The origin of the chronic lesion may be from an older focus that has undergone exacerbation as result of a loss of resistance of the host. First there is a histiocytic invasion, then granulomatous lesions appear with perifocal caseation. There may be fibrotic encapsulation in various areas of large infiltrates. The central softening is a granular type of caseation with varying amounts of fibrous debris and destroyed phagocytes. These cells usually begin to appear in the caseous areas. Finally there may be a rupture of the mass into a bronchus with small to large cavities resulting. These cavities may first be made up of pockets due to fibrous bands but complete excavation finally occurs to leave a ragged walled cavity which in time changes to a smooth walled or cystic type. Most chronic cavitory cases have cysts in the upper part of the lung with a repetition of the process toward the base as time goes on. Some cavitory cases may have extremely heavy hyalinized fibrous walls.

On the other hand there may develop rapid destruction of the lobe or a lung with cavity disease usually as a result of some break in the resistance of the host.

There may develop a fibroid pneumonitis that is composed largely of granulomatous tissue epithelioid cells with Langhans giant cells. The lymph nodes may be especially enlarged to form tumor masses simulating cancer and causing pressure on bronchi which leads to bronchiectasis or other pressure phenomena.

Röntgenological findings in histoplasmosis have been so well summarized and illustrated by Dr Silverman that there is no need for any more comment (p. 379).

On the clinical types of histoplasmosis Dr Lurcolow approaches the subject from a tentative classification of a complete disease spectrum involving both clinical and anatomic features and not just on the basis of clinical illness alone. This decision was reached after the author found more than a dozen different clinical classifications no two of which were alike and also because there are estimated to be thirty million infections in the country with only a small percentage of clinical disease. The basic difficulty with easy recognition of the disease he says is that the disease spectrum runs all the way from asymptomatic or mild infection through to chronic cavity disease. He also states, The disease is not new so it is obvious that the symptoms have mimicked other diseases otherwise it would have been recognized long ago.

The classification is into four main groups

- (1) Acute pulmonary histoplasmosis divided into asymptomatic and symptomatic. The latter may be mild or severe.
- (2) Chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis
- (3) Acute disseminated histoplasmosis which may be benign or progressive
- (4) Chronic disseminated histoplasmosis

Other forms recognized are acute cutaneous histoplasmosis bronchiolitis bronchitis (middle lobe syndrome) chronic fibrosis resulting in compression (inflow stasis).

So many different classifications perhaps point up the need for a committee to work on uniform classification as has been done for tuberculosis.

Dr Suthiff has given an adequate summary on the diagnosis of histoplasmosis (p 421)

In the differential diagnosis Pinkerton states that the mechanisms of the disease are strikingly similar to those of tuberculosis and coccidiomycosis. The most important disease to consider in differential diagnosis is tuberculosis and the finding of the respective agents by culture stain or animal inoculation comes first in the attempts to find the cause of the process. Immunological tests are also valuable. The author says: "It is probable that the great majority of cases even when clinical symptoms are present still escape detection and that in the number of cases diagnosis is proportional to the degree of interest in the disease." Again he says: "The differential diagnosis of histoplasmosis is complex multifaceted somewhat controversial difficult and in some instances impossible."

There is an elaborate chart which illustrates the various types of localizations of the disease as well as its progression.

The asymptomatic pulmonary calcifications are differentiated by positive histoplasmin and negative tuberculin tests. Healed histoplasmosis with calcification must be differentiated also from coccidiomycosis which involve many laboratory clinical and x-ray study. Clinically active forms have to be differentiated from influenza and other respiratory infections of an acute nature. Culture and immunological tests are required to achieve this result. More severe types of infiltrates and large lymph nodes patchy pneumonitis and radiating infiltrations that must be differentiated from many different conditions like sarcoidosis pneumonitis etc. A positive tuberculin and negative histoplasmin and vice versa are extremely important in diagnosing either disease.

Finally atypical pneumonia Q fever ornithosis and toxoplasmosis pulmonary fibrosis of many types are diseases from which histoplasmosis must be differentiated. Acute diffuse interstitial fibrosis (Hammon Rich disease) berylliosis acute alveolar proteinosis alveolar cell carcinoma and other conditions may simulate diffuse histoplasmosis. The middle lobe syndrome is frequent in histoplasmosis.

Cases with prolonged or intermittent fever or chronic cavity

disease are confused with tuberculosis. It requires all the diagnostic facilities available to find the respective parasites. Cystic lung, *Klebsella* infections and other fungus infections, bronchiectasis, *Mycotuberculosis* or other cavity disease must be considered and which must be separated from histoplasmosis.

The author takes up the coin lesion and differentiates the many diseases in this category, then the generalized lesion and the local lesion in the many systemic localizations, important of which are the pharyngeal infections.

An important problem was that of associated diseases. Most common is tuberculosis but also *Cryptococcosis* and other fungus infections, Hodgkin's disease and other lymphomas, sarcomas, allergic diseases and many more are also present.

The chapter on medical treatment by Yates, Langeluttig and Brasher has an adequate summary in the text to which the reader is referred (p. 469).

Likewise a summary of the chapter by Dr. Polk on surgical resection will suffice to indicate the place of surgery in the treatment of histoplasmosis and give the reader an indication of its content. Although Dr. Polk's classification differs from most of the others, it is intended purely for surgical use. It points up a need for a study of this phase of the problem (p. 490).

Seabury states that before 1945 the medical practitioner was little concerned with histoplasmosis, considered to be a rare and fatal disease up to that time. Now it is different because the disease is more prevalent in some regions than tuberculosis. There are enough known methods now of clinical and laboratory procedures to permit a general practitioner to suspect and find the disease early. The alert physician is or should be acquainted with the geographic distribution of the disease as well as with the many clinical and laboratory tests that help to identify it. The many factors of endemicity are mentioned which will contribute greatly to a better understanding of the disease process for the benefit of the practitioner of medicine.

He divides the field into various regions, namely of high, moderate and low endemicity. In the region of high endemicity are found most of the primary cases of histoplasmosis. It is generally

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disease are confused with tuberculosis. It requires all the diagnostic facilities available to find the respective parasites. Cystic lung klebsella infections and other fungus infections, bronchiectasis, silicotuberculosis or other cavity disease must be considered and which must be separated from histoplasmosis.

The author takes up the coin lesion and differentiates the many diseases in this category, then the generalized lesion and the local lesion in the many systemic localizations, important of which are the pharyngeal infections.

An important problem was that of associated diseases. Most common is tuberculosis but also Cryptococcosis and other fungus infections, Hodgkin's disease and other lymphomas, sarcoidosis, allergic diseases, and many more are also present.

The chapter on medical treatment by Yates, Langelutti, and Brasher has an adequate summary in the text to which the reader is referred (p. 468).

Likewise a summary of the chapter by Dr. Polk on surgical resection will suffice to indicate the place of surgery in the treatment of histoplasmosis and give the reader an indication of its content. Although Dr. Polk's classification differs from most of the others, it is intended purely for surgical use. It points up a need for a study of this phase of the problem (p. 190).

Seabury states that before 1945 the medical practitioner was little concerned with histoplasmosis, considered to be a rare and fatal disease up to that time. Now it is different because the disease is more prevalent in some regions than tuberculosis. There are enough known methods now of clinical and laboratory procedures to permit a general practitioner to suspect and find the disease early. The alert physician is or should be acquainted with the geographic distribution of the disease as well as with the many clinical and laboratory tests that help to identify it. The many factors of endemicity are mentioned which will contribute greatly to a better understanding of the disease process for the benefit of the practitioner of medicine.

He divides the field into various regions, namely of high, moderate and low endemicity. In the region of high endemicity are found most of the primary cases of histoplasmosis. It is generally

mild and may not produce any immediate problems except in infants where it may act similarly to primary tuberculosis in infants. The acute diffuse forms are sometimes severe and are found in regions where soils are contaminated with bird droppings. Even though rarely fatal it produces severe illness and the physician must know how to diagnose and treat it. It should be treated, the author thinks, rather early with antimicrobials. After the disease has run its course the late effects of recovery such as fibrosis must be properly understood. There are also many complications the physician should know.

In regions of moderate endemicity there will be relatively more adults having the primary histoplasmosis than in the areas of high endemicity. The diffuse and generalized form is not so common. Failures of diagnosis are common. Many linger in sanatoriums under the diagnosis of tuberculosis and are treated as such. In the regions of high and moderate endemicity the physician should have positive findings of tuberculosis and negative findings for histoplasmosis before making a diagnosis of tuberculosis. The areas of low endemicity are poorly outlined at present. Resort to skin testing for all granulomas is a safe way to pick up cases in all areas.

One of the biggest obstacles to clinicians is the pathologic diagnosis of chronic granuloma. Because of the tendency to call it tuberculosis or other chronic process without finding the true etiologic agent. Instead of representing a diagnostic challenge this simple tissue diagnosis that is chronic granuloma is likely to be accepted as an answer. Cultures, stains and animal inoculation should be made without delay and continued if necessary to try to find the real etiologic agent.

Seabury states another fallacy of making only a simple diagnosis without looking for other superimposed or the association of other diseases such as histoplasmosis and tuberculosis, diabetes and other conditions. Prolonged antimicrobial therapy should be suspected of producing not only Candidiasis but other fungus infections such as histoplasmosis especially in children and old people. Many other possible errors are cited.

He discusses coin lesions, their role and differential points to watch. He points out that an elevated complement fixation test and

positive histoplasmin skin test are most valuable indicators of histoplasmosis

Finally he says in high and moderate endemic areas practitioners pediatricians and medical internists must make the diagnosis whereas in areas of low endemicity pathologists and bacteriologists trained in mycology must perform that service In dentistry oral surgery gynecology and most other specialties the disease may appear so it behooves everybody to be on the lookout for it

Above all pathologists and bacteriologists trained in mycology should use all culture staining and animal inoculation techniques possible when the diagnosis is in doubt They should become mycologically conscious This applies to medical technologists also

Etiology of all granulomas cannot be established but the up-to-date pathologist can inform the practitioner of the facilities available and the material which must be submitted for examination Two things are necessary an enlightened pathologist and a conscientious practitioner willing to ask

mild and may not produce any immediate problems except in infants where it may act similarly to primary tuberculosis in infants. The acute diffuse forms are sometimes severe and are found in regions where soils are contaminated with bird droppings. Even though rarely fatal it produces severe illness and the physician must know how to diagnose and treat it. It should be treated the author thinks rather early with antimicrobials. After the disease has run its course the late effects of recovery such as fibrosis must be properly understood. There are also many complications the physician should know.

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He discusses coin lesions, their role and differential points to watch. He points out that an elevated complement fixation test and

AUTHOR INDEX

A

Ajell Eliberto 28 51 90 92 118 1 1 50
 Alexander F R 120
 Allfather W E 93
 Altman H L 118
 Area Leo A E 5
 Aronson D L 135
 Aschoff Ludwig 319

B

Baldridge G D 59 62
 Batson R 472
 Bauer H 31 211 212 13 223 229 510
 Baum Gerald L 7 400 42 504
 Becker Paul 150
 Bernard M W 3
 Bedford Chapman H 51 53 6 222 213
 77 285 319 322 5 5 335
 Binkley G E 111 178 179
 Bocar M D S 9
 Bonorden R 56
 Boelenkoph W G 132
 Brandt F A 217 443 510
 Brasher Charles A 12 487 517
 Brown J H 116
 Punnell I L 472 4 7

C

Campbell C C 111 56 94 158 1 0 174
 17 176 177 178 179 181 182
 Campins H 196
 Cawley E H 400
 Cazier P D 261
 Chandler Caroline 26
 Chase M W 109
 Christie Amos 4 24 6 88 192
 222 296 397 399 453
 Cole C R 140
 Conant N F 40 54 71
 Cooke W B 115 1 7
 Cozad G C 49 116

Crabtree J A 53

Crumm I D 53

Cross F W 67 181 194

Curtis A C 400

Curtis d Harrell 220

Curtis A 52

D

Darling Samuel Taylor 3 10 11 12 11
 15 16 17 18 19 22 40 76 143 21
 68 277 292 296 318 501 511
 da Rocha Lima Henrique 3 17 18 40
 Davis E W 317 4 6
 Day R 16
 DeMonbreun William A 3 4 1 22 2
 6 8 40 55 56 62 6 116 158 159
 49 261
 Desjardins A U 443
 Dickson E C 25
 Dodd Katherine 3 19 21 6
 Dowding E S 4 56 64
 Drouhet E 63 1 9
 Dubin I N 443
 Dyson J H 194

E

Edwards Phyllis Q 6 88 93 509
 Elson W O 457
 Emerson G L 432
 Emmons Chester W 4 5 6 28 50 92
 119 1 0 121 12 128 13 191 192
 194 261 3 9 505
 Evans E H 181 194
 Evans R E 47

F

Farrell R L 159 262
 Felson B 3 8
 Fee M 213
 Forsee J H 47
 Finkel J A 217 221 509

AUTHOR INDEX

Menges R W 91 9 130 41

Merchant R K 413

Meyer K F 6

Middleton J C 1 9

Miller D B 40

Morre M 40 4 438

Mowry Robert W 309

Murray J F 194

Mert W F

N

Negroni L 40 4 49 B 51 6 14

Neilson C E 41

Nolen W F 93 41 415

P

Palmer Carr H F 4 91 92 93 94
197 09

Para M 41

Park Edwards A 3

Parrot M J 13

Parsons R J 4 3 138 414 4 1 411

Pates A L 181

Peabody J W 317

Pearock C L 33 53

Petersen J C 4 9 88 138 197

Phelps B M 441

Pine Lee 3 5 68 13 01

Pinkerton Henry 333 16

Polk John W 479 487 51

Potenza L 913

Procknow John J 49 3 3 410 10

Puckett Thomas F 31 33 13 291 273

931 96 307 319 379 3 3 31 160

94 513

R

Rebello E R F 93

Rib E 60 6 181

Rihil C 19

Riley William A 3 19 143

Ritter C 11 197

Rohrson V 61

Rowley D A 57 63 69 71 9 6 41

Rubin H 174

Rule J S 961

Runyon I C 31

Russell Paul F 11

S

Saltus A B 1 1 196 3 8

Saltus D 140

Saltus S B 3 3 60 62 64 68 61 0

1 1 139 169 1 1 1 3 1 1 1 1 1 1

1 1 19 180 181 183 1

Saltus S 138 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1

Saltus G S 3 219

Saltus John R 99 40

Scherr C 13 6 69

Schubert J H 1 6

Schultz D M 97 311 3 1 3 6 43 110

Schwartz Jan 31 0 6 4 6 31 130

110 143 151 41 9 0 1 311 311

313 318 3 399 339 317 313 3 8

3 1 400 4 319

Seabury J Hu H 17 118

Seasick Bernard 31 399 31 3 4

Sherwood N E 5

Short D M 93

Stull H J 413

Silva M F 8

Silverman Charlotte 6

Silverman Frederic N 36 13

Smith Charles F 4 1 9 1 8 131 147

383 391

Sorensen L J 181

Stearns W H 313

Stewart R A 16

Straub Muel III 34 140 9 0 999 308

311 314 315 333 313

Strickland Richard P 17 99

Stull W D 4 9 517

Sweeney Henry C 13

Simmers W St C 93

T

Tage M I 8

Tahler F D 159

Taylor Richard R 409

Tenenberg Daniel J 93 169 13 176

509

Tenthworth E H 54 99

Tompkins Edna H 3 19 0 91 96

Furcolow Michael I 4 6 8 23 26 29
 30 31 39 171 173 175 177 182 183
 196 197 313 317 3 1 308 411 412
 481 07 11

G

Gaw R S 13
 Getler P H 214
 Chen A 31 11 296 339
 Clifford M A 21
 Gillespie J B 409
 Comori C 31 31 6 16 117 213 223
 22 431 10
 Gonzalez Ochoa A 82
 Goodpasture Ernest 20
 Gordon M A 121
 Gorgas W C 10
 Grayton J T 31 1 118 119 140 141
 140 1 1 118 196 13 137 2 9 160
 Greendyke R M 432
 Gridley M B 37 67 16 13 228 231
 234 10
 Grogan R C 11 11 213 3 11 11
 310
 Grunberg F 11 59

H

Halerman R T 130
 Haley L D 51 178
 Hansmann C H 17 40
 Hazen E L 1 9
 Helmlight A 1 49 116
 High R H 314
 Hill G A 1 9 111 11
 Hinton A 161 149
 Horr W H 177
 Hotchkiss R D 31 161 133 10
 Hottle G A 171 180 193
 Howell A J 40 11 17 158 169 176 119
 181 197 194 259
 Huber M 6 69 156
 Hughes F A 412

I

Ingold C T 114
 Israel H L 471
 Iverson L 31

J

Johnson H F 412
 Jorstad I H 438

K

Kalra S I 91
 Kac C J 0
 Katz S 311 394
 Kepke G F 118
 Kernohan J W 219
 Kessel John F 3 11
 Kipke C F 119
 Klac J H 89 93
 Klatzo I 111
 Klugman A M 31 9 6 117 110
 Knight R A 119
 Kudlich H 339
 Kuest G 339
 Kurung J M 1 1 116
 Kuzma J F 296

L

Langeluttag H Vernon 517
 Larsh Howard W 49 51 51 116 117
 117 460 106
 Lehan P H 11 114 1 18 348 366
 Liebow A A 158
 Lillie R D 11 212 114 11 8 119 133
 234 510
 Lindberg R H 191
 Littman M L 51 1 1 117
 Long F R 313
 Loosli C C 1 0 137 143 196 400
 Lumden I I 23

M

McManus J I A 31 161 133 134 510
 McVickar D I 57 158 111
 Maddy Keith T 124
 Mallory F B 411
 Manos A H 88 132 133 201
 Marcus S 159 191
 Mariat F 92
 Martin D S 1 1
 McFeney Henry H 19 20 117 116 111

SUBJECT INDEX

- A
- Abscess (see Lung abscess)
- ACTH steroids
 - with Ampicillin 49
- Actidione (see Antibiotics)
- Acute disseminated histoplasmosis
 - chronic course 431
 - fatal in very young 393
 - recovery 397
- Acute pulmonary histoplasmosis 381
 - 38 40 409
- Adison's disease 322 399
- Adhesions in histoplasmosis
 - compared to incidence in tuberculosis 304
- Aerosol (Henderson's)
 - direct inoculation of dust 160 16
- Adrenal glands
 - affinity of fungus for 7 399 3 6 399 439
- Adult primary infection in histoplasmosis 31
- Africa (including Union of South Africa) 94 12 197
- African histoplasmosis (see H. duboisii)
- Agammaglobulinemia
 - effect on resistance 106
- Age, race and sex distribution of
 - both ends of life 410
 - cases of histoplasmosis 141
 - more men than women 415
 - more whites than Negroes 41
- Agglutination test
 - effect on particles 6
 - hemagglutination test 171
 - histoplasmin latex 171
 - Saslaw and Campbell 170
- Alcian blue (see Stain)
- Aleurospores
 - macroconidia 44
 - microconidia 44
- Alveolar proteinosis 4 8
- Amazon Valley
 - bird migration influence 1 6
- American Association of Pathologists and Bacteriologists 22
- American Negro
 - mortality of tuberculosis in 53
- American Society of Tropical Medicine
- Amphotericin B
 - treatment 7 4 9 460 461 462 463 464 46 483
- Anaemia
 - due to histoplasmosis 19 437
- Ancon Canal Zone Hospital 14
- Animal experimentation
 - intracerebral 159
 - intraperitoneal 157 158
 - intravenous in white brown mice guinea pig white rats rabbit log hamster rhesus and cynomolgous monkeys 160
 - mucin enhances infection in diagnosis 160 161
- Animals implicated
 - susceptibility of dogs cats cattle horses and sheep 119
 - wild and domestic 92
 - wild animals 1 126
- Anopheles mosquito 11
- Antibiotics
 - in culture of H. capsulatum (penicillin chloramphenicol streptomycin actidione) 150
- Antigenic fraction of H. capsulatum
 - potency of cell wall 181
- Antigens in decreasing order 174
 - ground yeast—least effective
 - histoplasmin—in chronic cases
 - whole yeast—in early cases
- Tenenberg found whole yeast more sensitive but more non specific 175

V

Vanbreuseghem R 31 62
 Van Pernis I A 97 191 210
 Vassan D A 321

W

Watson Cecil J 5 19 143
 Weed I A 61
 White F C 402
 Wilson J W 400
 Workman W C 193

Y

Yates J Lewis 217
 Yegian D 126

Z

Zarafoncus C J D 4 27 56 191 411
 421 441
 Zeidberg I B 9 79 81 101 111 1
 128 140 196 208
 Zimmerman L F 213 21 317 319 441
 412
 Zwerling Henry 6

SUBJECT INDEX

A

- Abcess (*see* Lung abscess)
- ACTH steroids
 - with Amphotericin B 49
- Actidione (*see* Antibiotics)
- Acute disseminated histoplasmosis
 - chronic course 491
 - fatal in very young 399
 - recovery 397
- Acute pulmonary histoplasmosis 381
 - 38 403 408
- Addison's disease 291 322 399
- Adhesions in histoplasmosis
 - compared to incidence in tuberculosis 04
- Aerosol (Henderson's)
 - direct inoculation of dust 160 16
- Adrenal glands
 - affinity of fungus for 7 329 3 6 399 439
- Adult primary infection in histoplasmosis 3 6
- Africa (including Union of South Africa) III 19 197
- African histoplasmosis (*see* H. duboisii)
- Agammaglobulinemia
 - effect on resistance 106
- Age race and sex distribution of
 - both ends of life 413
 - cases of histoplasmosis 144
 - more men than women 415
 - more whites than Negroes 41
- Agglutination test
 - collodion particles 6
 - hemagglutination test 171
 - histoplasmin latex 171
 - Saslaw and Campbell 170
- Alcian blue (*see* Stain)
- Aspores
 - macroconidia 41
 - microconidia 44
- Alveolar proteinosis 498
- Amazon Valley
 - bird migration influence 1 6
- American Association of Pathologists and Bacteriologists III
- American Negro
 - morphology of tuberculosis in III
- American Society of Tropical Medicine III
- Amphotericin B
 - treatment 7 459 460 461 46 463 464 465 493
- Anaemia
 - due to histoplasmosis 19 437
- Ancon Canal Zone Hospital 14
- Animal experimentation
 - intracerebral 1 9
 - intraperitoneal 13/ 1 8
 - intravenous in white brown mice guinea pig white rats rabbit dog hamster rhesus and cynomolgous monkeys 160
 - mucin enhances infection in diagnosis 160 161
- Animals implicated
 - susceptibility of dogs cats cattle horses and sheep 119
 - wild and domestic 92
 - wild animals 123 1 6
- Anopheles mosquito 11
- Antibiotics
 - in culture of H. capsulatum (penicillin chloramphenicol streptomycin actidione) 150
- Antigenic fraction of H. capsulatum
 - potency of cell wall 181
- Anticells in decreasing order 174
 - ground yeast—least effective
 - histoplasmin—mucinous cases
 - whole yeast—an early cases
 - Tenenberg found whole yeast more sensitive but more non specific 17

V

Vanbreuseghem R 34 65
 Van Pernis B A 23 191 290
 Vivian B N 321

W

Watson Cecil J 3 19 143
 Weed I A 61
 White I C 40.
 Wilson J W 400
 Workman W G 193

Y

Yates J Lewis 17
 Yegian D 156

Z

Zarafonitis C J D 4 56 191 414
 424 441
 Zeidberg I B 78 79 81 90 111 12
 128 140 196 508
 Zimmerman L E 713 721 317 319 441
 44.
 Zwerling Henry 6

SUBJECT INDEX

A

- Abcess (i.e. Lung abscess)
- ACTH steroids
 - with Amphoteracin B 49
- Acidimie (see Antifolates)
- Acute disseminated histoplasmosis
 - chronic course 491
 - fatal in very young 399
 - recovery 327
- Acute pulmonary histoplasmosis 381
 - 393 40 403
- Admission & case 221 322 399
- Adhesions in histoplasmosis
 - compared to incidence in tuberculosis 301
- Aerosol (Henderson's)
 - dye inoculation of duck 160 162
- Arenal glands
 - affinity of fungus for 7 322 3 6 399 453
- Adult primary infection in histoplasmosis 396
- Africa (including Union of South Africa) 94 123 127
- African histoplasmosis (see *H. duboisii*)
- Agammaglobulinemia
 - effect on resistance 306
- Age race and sex distribution of
 - both sexes 411 41
 - cases of histoplasmosis 144
 - more men than women 425
 - more whites than Negroes 41
- Agglutination test
 - collusion particles 6
 - hemagglutination test 11
 - histoplasma latex 171
 - Saslaw and Campbell 110
- Alcian blue (i.e. stain)
- Aleurospores
 - macroconidia 41
 - microconidia 41
- Alveolar proteinosis 428
- Amianth Valley
 - bird migration influence 176
- American Association of Pathologists and Bacteriologists 22
- American Negro
 - history of tuberculosis in 33
- American Society of Tropical Medicine 22
- Amphotericin B
 - treatment 7 439 460 461 47 463 461 47 48
- Anaemia
 - due to histoplasmosis 19 437
- Ancon Canal Zone Hospital 14
- Animal experimentation
 - intra cerebral 139
 - intra peritoneal 131 118
 - intra enous in white brown mice
 - guinea pig white rats rabbit
 - don hamster shrews and cynomolgus in inkers 160
 - mucin enhances infection in diagnosis 160 161
- Animals implicated
 - susceptibility of don cats cattle horses and sheep 119
 - wild and domestic 97
 - wild animals 123 176
- Anopheles mosquito 11
- Antibiotics
 - in culture of *H. capsulatum* (penicillin chloramphenicol streptomycin actidione) 150
- Antigenic fraction of *H. capsulatum*
 - permeability of cell wall 181
- Antigens in decreasing order
 - ground yeast—least effective
 - histoplasma—in chronic cases
 - whole yeast—in early cases
- Tenenberg found whole yeast more sensitive but more non-specific 17

- Antimicrobial treatment 491
- Area of prevalence outside the main foci
- Maryland Pennsylvania Delaware
 - Georgia North Carolina 131
 - Minnesota Iowa Lake Champlain area 132
- Arkansas
- optimum weather 131
- Aristotle's admonition 33
- Asia
- Southeast 94 19, 416
- Associated diseases tuberculosis other fungi etc 410 441 489
- allergic diseases 443
 - Hodgkin's 447
 - lymphomas 441
 - lymphosarcomas 443
 - neoplastic diseases 442
 - sarcoidosis 444
 - staphylococcus and streptococcus 401
- Asteroid bodies 421
- Asymptomatic histoplasmosis 407
- Atypical pneumonia resemblance to histoplasmosis 419
- differentiated from 498
- Australia
- H capsulatum found 91
- Artifacts
- in histoplasmosis 313
- B**
- Bacteriologists
- trained in mycology 507 603
- Bat disease 391
- Bat excreta (guano) source of histoplasmosis 31
- house bat—soil produced H capsulatum around house 83
- Bat roosts 491
- Bauer reaction (see Stains)
- Benign infection
- in dogs and cats 78
 - in man 88 318 419
- Beryllium pneumonitis 428
- Birds as carriers 176
- Birefringence (See Polarized microscopy)
- Blastomycin 498 507
- Blastomycosis
- B brasiliensis 167
 - H dermatitides 16
 - isolated by direct method 163
 - stilbamidine in 16
 - various aspects 239 240 3, 1 431 493
- Blood and bone marrow
- positive cultures with no symptoms 378
- Bone marrow
- most productive source of H capsulatum 415
- Broncholiths 400
- Bronchiectasis 330 400 403 491
- Brucellosis 419
- Buds of yeast (Gomori stain brings out buds best) 48 66 270
- C**
- Calcification (calcific lesions)
- all that calcifies not tuberculosis 337
 - concentric laminations in histoplasmosis 34 502
 - disseminated 319 493
 - histoplasmin test higher in x ray positive cases 141
 - in axillary nodes 373
 - in lungs 140
 - in spleen 31 374 3, 3 316
 - larger than in tuberculosis 317 341
 - most lesions are multiple with lymph node (Ghon) complex 141 147
 - number of 373
 - Schauman like bodies in 217
 - stippled and mulberry type with soft halo 340 3 9
 - with negative tuberculin 4 99 9 189
 - with positive histoplasmin 140
- California 4
- Callose
- in spores 45
- Camp Crowder 100
- Camp Gruber epidemic 31
- Candida
- appearance of 211 500
 - similar to H capsulatum on heart valves 8 2, 7

- Caveous encapsulated areas
 contain most cells 221 222
- Capsule
 apparent capsule is artefact 60
 cell wall 15
 none in H capsulatum 53 60
- Cattle
 susceptibility 119
- Carcinoma 201
- Cats incidence of H capsulatum 11 29 119
- Caves 491
- Cave disease 81 8 391
- Cavitary histoplasmosis 8 29 281
 apical and subapical in position 366
 caseous then hyalinized then epithelialized 309
 may have parasites in walls 309
 x ray appearance 361
- Cavity wall evolves from
 a granular caseation to 3 9
 a granulomatous process 331
 finally to a cyst 309
 then to a fibroid mass 309
- Cerebral histoplasmosis 439
- Chesapeake Bay (only one of many
 chicken coops infested) 81
- Chicago University of 249
- Chicken coops yards and houses 4
 11 128 494 498
 from rat burrows near 19
 growth of histoplasmosis from walls
 around 28
 mature importance 130
 on Chesapeake Bay 81
 unclean coops rather than clean are
 best source 80
- Chicken excreta as source of H capsulatum 79 80 91 128 434 493
- Chicken manure (see Excreta)
- Chickens
 excreta important (see Excreta) 91
 free of disease 79 141 9
- Chinese laborer 1
- Chitin
 capsule residue 259
 in walls of spores 4
 stained by McManus stain 31
- Chlamydoxysts
 shape size 41
- Chloramphenicol (see Antibiotics)
- Chromatin appearance in cells of yeast 13
- Chronic cavitary histoplasmosis
 progressive 39
- Chronic disseminated histoplasmosis
 mimics other diseases as lymphomas
 Hodgkin's etc 309
- Chronic granuloma
 a pitfall in diagnosis 499
- Chronic lesions in mice 6
- Chronic pulmonary histoplasmosis
 its nature 268 404 410
 resembles tuberculosis clinically 4 0
- C. cinnamomi
 time of appearance of sensitivity to
 histoplasmin 194
 pigeons nests in water tower 33 34 311
- Classifications of histoplasmosis
 anatomical 384
 chronic progressive histoplasmosis 499
 clinical 384
 moderate severity of histoplasmosis
 4 8 499
 surgical classification 413
 syndromes rather than diseases 407
 416
 table 4 6
- Clinical pathologic mycology 49 503
- Coccidio des immunity 106 07 240
 31 417 431
- Coccidio lin test 189 04 498 0
- Coccidiomycosis 4 5 24 28 189 200
 cross reactions with 88
 isolation methods 16
 miscellaneous 493 4 4 49 49
 precipitation reaction 177
 spectrum of disease (60% with no
 symptoms) 383
 with polarized light 163
- Coccidioid granuloma (see Coccidiomycosis)
- Common lesions (histoplasmosis) 311 319
 360 43 434 501
- Colonies of H capsulatum
 appearance of and growth on media
 41 42

- effect of temperature on 152
 - Colloidal agglutination test in histoplasmosis ■ 168
 - Complement fixation in histoplasmosis ■ 169
 - Salvin test 169
 - Saslaw and Campbell test 169 170
 - Tenenberg and Howell test 169
 - Complications
 - pneumothorax broncho pleural fistula 368
 - Conidia (see Macro and Microconidia)
 - Conversion of
 - spores to yeast 27
 - Converters
 - skin test negative to positive 3 6 386 387
 - 30° x ray positive 388 427
 - 2° become serology positive 389 427
 - Coremia 42
 - Costa Rica 9
 - Cresyl violet
 - improves birefringence of cryptococcus 214
 - Cross reactions
 - aided by geographical distribution 179
 - especially coccidiomycosis 178
 - of histoplasmosis with other fungi 28 87 93
 - Cryptococcus (neoformans) 81 16° 214 19 210 359 417 431
 - identified by polarized light 163
 - Cueva de las Lechuzas (see Cave disease)
 - Cultural characteristics (see also Yeast phase and Mycelial phase)
 - appearance of colonies grows in 10 14 days 151
 - many atypical forms 152
 - Cutaneous mucocutaneous 438
 - Cystic cavities form in histoplasmosis 29
 - no pyogenic membrane 287
 - with slick walls 287
 - Cystic fibrosis
 - chronic 500
 - Cytochemical features of other yeasts (see also Blastomyces dermatitidis B brasiliensis cryptococcus neoformans coccidioides immitis) 239
 - Cytomycosis (named by DeMontreun but not accepted) 2
- ## D
- Dalton Georgia
 - skin reactions varied 100° 200
 - Decayed wood source of H capsulatum 434
 - Dehiscing spores 114
 - Diagnosis
 - be accurate in area of low endemicity 497
 - be aware of a single diagnosis look for other diseases 499
 - by laboratory means 160
 - culture and animals 161
 - Differentiation of histoplasmosis from tuberculosis ■ 419
 - Diffuse interstitial fibrosis (Hamman Rich) 498
 - Dimorphic fungi 87
 - Diphasic fungi 157
 - Disease patterns of serology 177
 - Disseminated histoplasmosis 394 407
 - mostly in children with spleen liver adrenals involved 414
 - nature and symptoms of 436
 - x ray shadows 358
 - District of Columbia 94
 - Dogs
 - intratracheal inoculation produces widespread disease 26
 - a susceptible host 9 119
 - good source of H capsulatum 10 119
 - isolated H capsulatum from by De Montreun and Emmens 4 29 9
 - widespread disease in natural infection usually by gastrointestinal route 161
 - Domestic animals susceptible to H capsulatum
 - dogs cats cow horse 92
 - Dual nature of H capsulatum
 - yeast phase mycelial phase 40
 - Dust infection 8

E

- Egyptian tombs 392
 Electron microscope
 uses in study of histoplasmosis 3
 Encapsulated lesions with parasites in
 center 281
 Endemic areas 11
 Virginia and Georgia 5-6
 Areas of endemicity
 moderate 49
 low 498
 high 494
 Endospores
 fat globules simulate in *C. immitis*
 41-41
 Enteritis due to histoplasmosis 439
 Epidemiology
 advances in may depend on skin tests
 190
 coccidiomycosis 4
 histoplasmosis 96-113-168
 tuberculosis 4
 Eptesicus fuscus (see House bat)
 Estado Lara—in Venezuela
 cave having *H. capsulatum* 89
 Eitzyanallite in histoplasmosis 7
 Evansville (Crimm and Short reported
 negative tuberculosis with calcifica-
 tions) 3
 Evolution of primary histoplasmosis
 benign as bronchopneumonia later
 granulomatous changes calcifica-
 tion as lesion cavity formation
 polymorphs are scarce epithelioid
 cells many 99
 arrested primary usually longer than
 in tuberculosis not so dense 300
 hematogenous as slowly spleen
 lesion is 302
 histology similar to tuberculosis but
 less central calcification 303
 Exposure to dust 416
 Extra-pulmonary histoplasmosis (mucous
 membrane oral esophageal adre-
 nal central nervous system pericard-
 dium spleen liver meninges) 41
 Fetal pulmonary foci 340-341

F

- Farmers
 most frequently involved with chronic
 form usually exposed to chicken
 manure 410
 Fibrin cavity disease 36-36-36
 Fibrinoid disease
 exclusion of 991
 Fixation of tissue
 by alcohol (ethanol) methanol or
 alcohol formalin 91
 Fixatives
 alcohol formalin Zenker's Helly's
 292
 Flood theory
 that spores are carried away and then
 spread by air 139
 Florida 91
 Fluorescent antibody
 possibilities in diagnosis 164
 Fuchsen reaction 7-31
 Fulminating type of histoplasmosis
 its nature 969
 Fungi imperfecta
 to which *H. capsulatum* belongs 40
 Fungus
 demonstrated in human tissue 31
 geographical aspects 114
 nature of antibiotic production 114
 pathogenic forms 919
 true nature of 40

G

- Gastric intestinal histoplasmosis 41
 Gallinaceous bird 81
 Geremia's histoplasmosis 0
 much like tuberculosis but varies in
 certain aspects 71
 Geographical location 1-3
 highest in East Central State 900
 Gemmules 47-56-71-910
 Germination of spores with polysaccharide
 p p 47
 G1 complex 14
 Giensta and Wright station (see Station)
 Glycogen granules
 none black 23-3

Gomori-Grocott stain (methenamine silver)
in caseous and encapsulated lesion
80% positive 336

Gram's stain 31

Gram-Weigert stain 31

Granules of yeast 329

Granuloma of histoplasmosis 216 322
331 498 499

Grocott stain (see Stain and Gomori-Grocott)

H

Hamartoma 419

Hamburg, Germany

Institute of Tropical Diseases 1

Hamman-Rich disease 428

Hamster

Chinese 3 19 503

H. duboisii in 3

Healed military tuberculosis
probably histoplasmosis 39^o

Heart valves

localization on 8 439

Hematoxylin and eosin

inadequate in histoplasmosis 33 6^o
211

Hepatic granulomas 2

Hepatosplenalgia 317 43

Hematogenous spread

may be like tuberculosis 319

Hilar adenopathy 348

Histiocytes

organisms in 14

Histiocytomycosis 321

Histoplasmin sensitivity 4 93

cross reactions with coccidioidin 19

degree of sensitivity 197

development of sensitivity 196

diagnosis with 498

distribution maps inaccurate 94

dosage of 193 194

factors affecting 19

high rate 88

in children 9

in navy recruits 206

in student nurses 4 26

interpretation of 201 902

its relation to x-ray shadows 333

preparation of antigen 191 19

pulmonary findings higher in stronger
skin reactions 206

reading reaction 19

significance of size of reaction 90

specificity of 134 19

stability of 193

standardization of 19^o 193

suppression of sensitivity 197

testing with 418

the test technic 183 190 131

types 183

Histoplasmosis

coin lesions 331 412 413 50

epithelioid cells around capsule 314

lesions similar 313

size 0.5-5 cm 312

the keystone—a dense pleural plaque
312

years found in central caseation if
present 314

Histoplasmosis

afflicts millions 14 113 119 386

benign form 27 87 190

confusion with tuberculosis 3

epidemics of 99 31

geographical incidence 26

healed lesions in spleen 34

human infection 93

mimics other diseases 383 474

morphic logs of lesions in 34

new approach in diagnosis 33

non-contagiousness of 113

regional nature of 113

sub-clinical type 26

H. capsulatum

antibodies in 6

cultivation of 6 149 416

dual form—parasite and saprophyte 3

fluorescent antibody 149

found in

hollow trees basements storm cellars

floors of meat houses and old water
towers 81

from air 29

from soil 98 89

H. duboisii 34 61 65

infections 4

- Asian habitats 110
 killing
 in water of rivers with unfavourable plants
 1718
 optimum temperature for growth
 humidity decreases resistance
 important 114 197
 polarized light 149
 profusion of spores 114
 staining 149
 strict aerobe 51
 tissue culture 149
 II farinaceous in horses 9 15 16
 Hodgkin's disease 34
 II homogeneous reactions stronger than
 heterologous 179
 Hookworm
 in cause of anaemia 11
 Horses
 susceptibility of 119
 Hypersensitivity to
 cell proteins 109
 delayed type 109
 Hypha hyphae 47 112 113
 pseudo hyphae 113
 I
 Immunity in histoplasmosis 6
 cell fractions used but much capillary
 phase effective 104
 challenge dose reduced but all cells
 killed 100
 immune tests are essential 101
 killed cells or fractions used 100
 living cells more effective 109
 man from endemic areas less susceptible
 to acute attacks 100
 mechanism of protection unknown 104
 non-humoral antibodies shown 106
 pathogens less in vaccinated animals as
 tested by 32P labelled cells 100
 resistance is perhaps due to increase in
 ability of macrophages to destroy
 cells 108
 shown by inoculating eyes of rats
 and 30 day old mice 99
 Incidence of histoplasmosis reported has
 risen in last 10 years 115 116
 may be 1/2 population 110
 India
 in capsulatum found 111
 in lesions 416
 India
 in infection 191
 Infarcts 43
 Infection
 progressive march of 19 111
 113
 Infiltrates with soft histiocytes 33
 Infiltrative lesion
 culture of 27 33 36
 International Health Board 11
 Influenza 417
 Interstitial pneumonia 431
 Intestinal involvement 36
 Intraperitoneal inoculation
 cultures remain positive for 4 weeks
 11
 J
 Jackson County Iowa
 supports point source theory 140
 variations in skin sensitivity 134
 John Hopkins University School of
 Hygiene 11
 Joints histoplasmosis 437
 K
 Kalmar 356 40
 Kansas City schools
 infections more universal than until 1953
 were tested for source points of
 origins of infection 131 138
 Kunitz 15
 Kunitz
 curse of 39
 Kleiwell pneumonia 410 419
 Kupffer cell 17
 Krumholz and Yagisaka medium 151
 potato flour egg medium 156
 L
 Larva Leishmania 196 416
 Laryngeal histoplasmosis 21

- Latin America 9
 League of Nations 12
 Leesburg Georgia 11 18
 Leishmania 3 5 10 14 15 17 19
 Life cycle of *H. capsulatum* diagrammed 41
 Lipoid pneumonia 432
 Littman's
 liver spleen glucose blood agar 155
 Lobar or segmental consolidations
 like epituberculosis 354
 Lymphomas 471
 Lung abscess 419 494
 Lung cancer
 confusion with histoplasmosis 394
 Lungs
 most infections take place in 141
 Lymph node
 can cause pressure 335
 can liquefy 296
 can perforate 307
 involved and large in histoplasmosis 255
 larger than in tuberculosis 313
 lesions similar to those in lungs 334
 lymphadenomegaly 357
 mediastinal 494
- M**
- Macrophages 7 9 1 253
 Macrospores microspores
 (see Macroconidia)
 Malaria 10
 Maltese crosses 211
 in polarized light 227
 Martinique Negro 14
 first case of histoplasmosis 15
 Maryland
 low in skin reaction but many
 cases reported 84
 Mayer's (see Mucicarmine)
 Mayo clinic
 Vivian listed clinical symptoms 324
 Media
 brain heart infusion with blood 41
 brain yeast agar 43
 corn meal agar 43
 Francis media 41 57 151
 malt agar 43
 nutrient dextrose agar 43
 potato dextrose agar 43
 Sabouraud's agar 41 149
 tomato juice agar 43
 whole blood media best for yeast
 phase 41
 Medistinus 494
 Medical technologists
 skilled mycology 503
 Mediterranean
 eastern 151
 Metanil yellow (see Stain)
 Metazoa
 staining of 219
 Methenamine silver nitrate stain 31 51
 (see also Stain)
 Mexico
 cave disease in due to bat guano 89
 Mice inoculated
 intracerebral high mortality but is
 unnatural 259
 intraperitoneal route only liver spleen
 pancreas and local sites are
 involved 258
 intravenously with yeast produced
 lesions in most organs 251
 oral route most difficult to control 60
 Mickle tissue disseminator 103
 Microconidia 44
 may form macroconidia 152
 microconidia predominate 49
 one nucleus with nucleolus 48
 size nature germination of 47
 Micrococcus pyogenes 410
 Microscopic pathology
 for clinicians 499
 Middle lobe syndrome 400 405 498 489
 Minnesota resident first case in U. S. 19
 Minneapolis
 skin sensitivity around 139 133
 Mississippi river
 bird migration has no influence on
 156 127
 has high endemicity 493
 has optimum weather 131
 high incidence along 121 416 49
 Missouri river
 bird migration no influence 127

- high incidence along 1 1
optimum weather 131
- Mixed infections of histoplasmosis tuberculous and other diseases 499 500
- Morilla* (*Candida*)
- Moniliaceae 40
- Monocytes
 circulating 19
- Montgomery County Maryland
 skin reaction varied from 14 to 60% 200
- Macroconidia
 germ tubet form 47
 in culture 1
 in soil 30
 nature and size of 41 114 117
- Mucicarmine (Mayer's) 163
- Mucous membrane histoplasmosis 498
- Multiple exposures may occur 349
- Mycelial phase 5
 broth filtrate antigen was first
 histoplasmin 93 24
 conversion to yeast is difficult—best results on BHI agar HeLa cells Kurung Vagian Littman's and Salvin's media also in mice at 37 C temperature chelating agents citric acid cysteine glycyl glycine versene added 4 151
- infectiousness 11
 morphology—white fluffy colonies 131
 needs high humidity 1
 optimum pH 6.5 51
 reaction caused by strain 1 19 219
 resistance to elements 1 9
 temperature best at 9 C 1
- Mycethem 1 6
- Mycology clinical 43

N

- Nashville Tennessee (see Vanderbilt U)
- Naso oral histoplasmosis 439
- New Mexico 91
- Nodular large 107
- Nocidia 431
- Noncontagiousness
 not yet proved 90
- Non specific stimulation 7
- North Carolina 416

- North 30
- Nosology 406
- Nymphopores 1

O

- Ocular histoplasmosis 439
- Ohio river
 bird migration no influence 19
 best optimum weather 131
 high incidence also in 194
- Ollivier (see Gaudaro)
- Omnivorous 4 8
- Otic histoplasmosis 41

P

- Panama 1
- Paraffin sections 917
- Parrot's law holds as in tuberculosis 99
- Passive transfer of Chase 109
- Pathogenicity 45—tain (see Stain)
- Pathogenesis
 of acute histoplasmosis
 mostly in young tumor like masses
 enlarged lymph nodes and spleen
 (more than in tuberculosis) 71
 adrenals bone marrow and liver also
 severely involved 2
- of chronic histoplasmosis
 dust exposure in latter part of life
 9, 3 1
 reinfection or reactivation 1 971
- in man 46
 in mice 249
- Pathogenomic
 only cultured parasites 3%
 tain strongly presumptive 336
- Penicillin (see Antibiotics)
- Pennsylvania
 publications of University of 19
- Perodacacid (see Stain Schiff's PAS)
- Peru
 H capsulatum from floor of caves in
 6 81
- Philippine Islands 15
- geons
 nests 6
 excavated 31
 in water tower 81

- Latin America 9
 League of Nations 12
 Leesburg Georgia 11 18
 Leishmania 5 10 14 15 17 19
 Life cycle of *H. capsulatum* diagrammed 41
 Lipoid pneumonia 432
 Littman's
 liver spleen glucose blood agar 1, 7
 Lobar or segmental consolidations
 like epituberculosis 3, 4
 Lymphomas 421
 Lung abscess 419 494
 Lung cancer
 confusion with histoplasmosis 394
 Lungs
 most infections take place in 141
 Lymph node
 can cause pressure 353
 can liquefy 296
 can perforate 307
 involved and large in histoplasmosis 293
 larger than in tuberculosis 313
 lesions similar to those in lungs 334
 lymphadenomegaly 3 7
 mediastinal 494

M

- Macrophages 1 221 233
 Macrospores microspores
 (see Macroconidia)
 Malaria 10
 Maltese crosses 214
 in polarized light 227
 Martinique Negro 14
 first case of histoplasmosis 15
 Maryland
 low in skin reaction but many
 cases reported 81
 Mayer's (see Mucicarmine)
 Mayo clinic
 Auman listed clinical symptoms 324
 Media
 brain heart infusion with blood 41
 brain veal agar 43
 corn meal agar 43
 Francis media 41 57 151
 malt agar 43
 nutrient dextrose agar 43
 potato dextrose agar 43
 Sabouraud's agar 44 149
 tomato juice agar 43
 whole blood media best for yeast
 phase 41
 Mediasinus 494
 Medical technologists
 skilled mycology 405
 Mediterranean
 eastern 197
 Metanil yellow (see Stain)
 Metazoa
 staining of 212
 Methenamine silver nitrate stain 31 69
 (see also Stain)
 Mexico
 cave disease in due to bat guano 89
 Mice inoculated
 intracerebral high mortality but is
 unnatural 239
 intraparitoneal route only liver spleen
 pancreas and local sites were
 involved 238
 intravenously with yeast produced
 lesions in most organs 237
 oral route most difficult to control 460
 Mickle tissue disseminator 103
 Microconidia 41
 may form macroconidia 159
 microconidia predominate 49
 one nucleus with nucleolus 48
 size nature germination of 47
 Micrococcus pyogenus 410
 Microscopic pathology
 for clinicians 493
 Middle lobe syndrome 400 403 4 8 489
 Minnesota resident first case in U. S. 19
 Minneapolis
 skin sensitivity around 131 133
 Mississippi river
 bird migration has no influence on
 126 1
 has high endemicity 493
 has optimum weather 131
 high incidence along 1 1 416 49
 Missouri river
 bird migration no influence 1 7

- Resection of histoplasmosis
 bronchial stenosis 418
 bronchiectasis 180
 cavitary type 477
 indications for resection of primary
 type of histoplasmosis 416
 pulmonary lesions 413 414
- Reservoirs of *H. capsulatum*
 hosts in nature 4 5 16 17
- Resistance
 natural 109 110 323 3 6
- Reticul endothelial cells 19 3 17
 101 33 318 3 13 3
- River basins
 implicated by some: Missouri: Missis-
 sippi: Ohio: Amazon: LaPlata: Ori-
 noco in South America: Congo
 and Niger in Africa: Irrawaddy in
 Burma: suspect also many other
 great rivers: Mekong: Indus: Gan-
 ges: Yangtze and Yellow 81 171
- Rockefeller Foundation 4 11
- Rotterdam 140
- Roumiles
 two types III
 infiltrative mass
 centrifugal enlargement
 (see also Coin lesions 434)
- Route of infection of *H. capsulatum*
 gastrointestinal relatively rare 216
 most common is respiratory 216
- Royal Society of Tropical Medicine 12
- Rural vs urban factors 61
- Russell bodies 23
- S
 Sabouraud's agar for isolation of
H. capsulatum 40 77
- Sao Paulo Brazil 11
- Saprophytic form of *H. capsulatum* 100
 Da ling's and DeMonbreun's concepts
 of a saprophytic phase 16
 Emmon's proof of it 76
 grows in soil as saprophyte 78 79
 Srae Venezuela 196
- Sarcoid like lesions 371 323 336 405
- Sarcoidosis
 had to differ from histoplasmosis 4 0
- Satellite foci
 in primary lesions 9 93 96
- Scarcity of pathological material 318
- Schaumann like bodies 11
 (see also Asteroid bodies 4 1)
- Schiff reaction (c. Stains)
- Sepedonium
 Han man and Schenken discovered
 histoplasmosis 6 months before
 DeMonbreun but thought it
 sepedonium 100
- Serology in histoplasmosis
 complement fixation 9 4 169
 in sanatoria in milwest 39
 methods 169 173
 rising titre in acute disease 81
 sensitivity vs specificity 17 13
 (see also Agglutination and
 Precipitation)
- Sex factors 101
- Sheep
 susceptibility of 119
- Silicotuberculosis 43
- Silosis
 dust 431
 source of *H. capsulatum* in Illinois
 80 11
- Skin sensitivity to histoplasmosis 4
 converters 168
 methods of testing 418
 permanence 6
 surveys 1 4 11
 time of appearance 196
 with pulmonary lesions 140
- Skunk
 as reservoir of *H. capsulatum* 78 13
- Socio economic factors 61
- Soft x ray shadows in chest may later
 show calcifications 331
- Source point (see Point source)
- South Africa 6 10
H. capsulatum isolated in caves of 8
- South America 4
- Specialists
 of all types must be alerted 503
- Specimens
 surgical and autopsy 217
- Spectrum of disease 406

- Pigment in histoplasmosis lesions less common than in tuberculosis 303
 Plasmodia
 resemblance of histoplasmosis to 14
 Plattsburg, New York
 pigeons nests with *H. capsulatum* 81
 Pediatrician and internist important 70
 Pleural involvement 343
 Pleuritis may be present in chronic histoplasmosis 333
 effusion less common than in tuberculosis 362
 not common 361
 Pneumonitis
 simulating chronic pneumonia 983
 simulating sarcoid 331
 Pneumocystis carinii 942
 Podzolic soils
 red yellow 84
 roughly corresponds to histoplasmin skin sensitivity 173
 Point source infection
 a focus of growth of fungus where people become infected 137
 bourne out by epidemics 137
 questionnaires showing evidence 141
 200 391 393
 Polarized microscopv 163 227 312
 Polysaccharide
 in capsule 7
 Portal of entry of hist. plasmosis is mostly respiratory tract 308
 others may exist—enteric skin
 Practitioner's obligations 492
 Prague 31
 Precipitin reaction 11 28 169
 test of Salvin and Hottel 141 142
 Primary complex
 by x ray 339
 its position is similar to that of tuberculosis 404
 Prognosis based on benign or progressive type 398
 Primary lesion of histoplasmosis
 a primary complex as in tuberculosis 297
 are widely distributed 244
 histology of 303
 in infants 493 494
 may be multiple 307 347
 many located beneath pleura 99,
 may develop into histoplasmosis 97
 morphology of 300
 only recently recognized 999
 some have concentric laminations 297
 the recent primary 999
 Pneumonitis
 organizing 321
 Progressive disease 3 11 351 35
 result of resection of same 481
 Frostatic histoplasmosis 439
 Protozoa 21
 Protozoan 40
 Public Health Service 4 8 25 29 200
 Psittacosis 419
 Puerto Rico 9
 Pycogenic membrane 399
- Q**
- Q fever 419
 differentiated from 444
- R**
- Rabbits respond to inoculation irregularly 260
 Race factors 201
 Race—in a series
 0% Negroes 130 whites 31,
 Rats 5
 Norway rats
 (Emmons found 3, 10 p. sensitive he isolated organisms from gut furrows near chicken coops) 18 10
 Recoveries from histoplasmosis
 are found in the less acute less disseminated cases 413
 Reinfection complex
 a question 299
 Re infection histoplasmosis
 may be like tuberculosis 293
 Relation of serology to skin sensitivity 189
 skin test has no effect on serology except when repeated every two weeks it affects colloidal agglutination 183
 Renal histoplasmosis 439
 Remissions in partial arrest 119

- PAS (Hick) (McManus) 233
 procedure 33
 reagents 231
 results 236
- Temperature
 effect of on H capsulation 11
 at 37° C—yeast forms no spores 4
 at 0° C—mycelia and spores 49
- Tennessee State Health Department 4
 results of culture of chicken yards 191
- Therapy of histoplasmosis
 antimony tried 6
 best used in progressive cases 40
 in agreement as to time and type to treat 430
 only suppressive not curative 450
 plan of treatment 451
 rest food good care as in tuberculosis 431
 specific 6
 specific agents
 stilbamidine hydroxystilbamidine
 VRD 112 Nystatin actidione
 amebicidal nepera antabuse
 are failures or at least no great
 help 4748
 Amphotericin B is suppressive 458
- Tingo Maria
 Fielre de Tingo Maria (see Cave
 disease)
- Tissue phase (see Yeast phase)
- Titers of serology tests
 significant in complement fixation 176
 Sal in 190140
 Salaw and Campbell whole yeast
 1101 111 suggestive 1160 pre-
 sumptive
 ground yeast 1401160 positive
 Tenenberg and Howell with histo-
 plasma 11115 significant
 Schubert's modification 18 significant
 precipitation 176
 significant in 1418
 collodion agglutination 176
 significant in 11180
- Tornadoes
 in dissemination 8139
 in Mississippi 136
- kin tests only partly confirm 136
- Tulsa 13
- Tracheo plasm 21
- Trabeculation
 in 48 hours 232
- Transvaal
 development time of skin sensitivity
 to histoplasma 194
- Trinidad 81
- Tuberculate spores 21449
 considered to be diagnostic of histoplasmosis 152
 inoculation in mice 19
- Tuberculin
 negative but with calcific scars 1
 test 189
- Tuberculomata 31
 many found to be histoplasmosis 313
- Tumors 419
 benign malignant metastatic 451
- Trypanosoma hippicum 10
- Types (clinical) of histoplasmosis
 pulmonary—acute chronic 384
 disseminated—acute chronic 384
- Types (pathological) of histoplasmosis
 in histocytes only 318
 in many organs but no caseation 319
 granulomatous with or without caseation 319
- Tuberculated spores
 inoculated intranasally in mice 249
 in 3 hours no change 230
 in 6 hours a few poly spores in
 alveoli 50
 in 15 to 24 hours many cells but
 local red no change in spores
 250
 in 36 hours spores still intact
 epithelial cells replace poly
 exudate spreads 251
 in 48 hours internal trabeculation
 of spores 52
 in 60 to 72 hours more segmenta-
 tion 52
 in 3 to 5 days defects in spore walls
 yeast contents bulged through
 252
 engulfed by macrophages blood
 stream infected in 7 days

- Speleologists disease (see Cave disease)
- Speleologists
in Venezuela warned of infection by
H capsulatum 82
bat manure suspected 82
- Spindle cell type of pathology 322
- Spleens
involved in histoplasmosis 140
- Splenomegaly
in histoplasmosis 3 437
- Spontaneous cure
in animals 29
in man 1
- Sports
best medium for growth 50
disseminated in air 115
found in soil 7 50
germination of 47
infects mice easily 50
in great numbers 114
inoculated into lungs of mice and fol-
lowed from 3 hours to months
949 203
resistance to chemicals 50 115
resistance to heat drying cold
5 50 114
size types 44
tuberculated 116
- Spores in man
probably are changed the same as
in mouse 268
- Sporotrichum schenckii
appearance of 241
- Sporoids
microspores or inclusion bodies not
understood may be abortive buds
246 277
- Stains
alcian blue 214
alkaline methylene blue 47
azure-eosin 212
Bauer's chromic acid Schiff 87 211
Best's carmine 219
Brown and Brenn 217
cotton blue 47
Giemsa's and Wright's 69 214 915
Gomori-Grocott (methenamine silver
nitrate 31 62 224 297
Gridley 31 69 162 913 214 220 999
hematoxylin—poor for histoplasmosis
214
Hotchkiss-McManus 31 116
metanil yellow 299 230 934 237
McManus periodic Schiff 31
Schiff's 47 69 169 211 212 213 214
215 999 239 314
Wilson's 416
- Steatornis caripensis
a bird from South American caves 81
H capsulatum grown from dirt of
floors of caves 89
- Stilbamidine 6
(2 hydroxy) 6
- Streptomycin (see Antibiotics)
- St. Lawrence river 416
- Student nurses
reaction to histoplasmin 99
- Surgical methods 489
lobectomies 489
pleuropneumonectomies 488
segmentals rarely done 489
- Superior vena cava
syndrome 409
- Supravital staining 3 19
- Survival of yeasts 281
- Swiss mouse
for inoculation 161
- Symptoms of histoplasmosis
mild moderate and severe 388
resembles tuberculosis 388 395 408
sometimes like atypical pneumonia
389 410
- Syria and Lebanon 12
- T
- Technic of staining (see also Stains) 993
Chromic Acid Schiff (Gridley) 228
procedure 230 231
reagents 299
results 231
Gomori-Grocott (methenamine silver)
procedure 244 295
reagents 294
results 296 227

- 1 V (H ichki McManus) 233
 procedure 33
 reagents 231
 results 233-236
 Temperature
 effect of on *H. capsulatum* 41
 at 37 C—yeast forms no spores 4
 at 0 C—mycelia and spores 4
 Tennessee State Health Department 4
 results of culture of chicken vari 191
 Therapy of histoplasmosis
 antim ny tried 6
 best used in progressive cases 430
 no agreement as to time and type to
 treat 4 0
 only suppressive not curative 450
 plan of treatment 451
 rest food good care as in tuberculosis
 4 1
 specific 6
 specific agents
 nitbamid ne hy froxystilham line
 MRD 11 Nystatin actidione
 amebicide nepera antabuse
 are failures or at least no great
 help 457-458
 Amphotericin B is suppressive 458
 Tingo Maria
 Fiel re de Ti go Maria (*see* Case
 d case)
 Tissue phase (*see* Yeast phase)
 Titers of serology tests
 significant in complement fixation 176
 Salvin 1 0 1 40
 Saslaw and Campbell whole yeast
 1 10 1 80 suggestive 1 160 pre
 sumptive
 ground yeast 1 40 1 160 positive
 T nent erg and Howell with h sto
 plasma 1 1 1 1 5 s gnificant
 Schubert s modification 1 8 signifi
 cant
 precipitation 1/6
 s gnificant in 1 4 1 8
 collodion agglutination 176
 significant in 1 20 1 80
 Tornadoes
 in dissemination 8 137
 in Mississippi 136
 kin tests only partly confirm 137
 Fulsa 13
 Toxoplasma 21
 Traculation
 of spores in 48 hours 9, 2
 Transvaal
 development time of skin sensitivity
 to *H. tophi* 196
 Trinidad 81
 Tuberculate spores 2^o 4, 49
 considered to be diagnostic of *H. to*
 plasmosis 159
 inoculation in mice 49
 Tuberculin
 negative but with calcific scars 9
 test 189
 Tuberculomata 31
 many found to be histoplasma in 319
 Tumors 419
 benign malignant metastatic 431
 Trypanosoma lippicum 10
 Types (clinical) of histoplasmosis
 pulmonary—acute chronic 384
 disseminated—acute chronic 384
 Types (pathological) of histoplasmosis
 in histiocytes only 318
 in many organs but no caseation 319
 granulomatous with or without casea
 tion 319
 Tuberculated spores
 inoculated intranasally in mice 949
 in 3 hours no change 30
 in 6 hours a few poly spores in
 alveoli 250
 in 15 to 24 hours many cells but
 localized no change in spores
 2, 0
 in 36 hours spores still intact
 epithelial cells replace poly
 exudate spreads 2, 1
 in 48 hours internal trabeculation
 of spores 95
 in 60 to 72 hours more segmenta
 tion 959
 in 3 to 5 days defects in spore walls
 yeast contents bulged through
 25
 engulfed by macrophages blood
 stream infected in 7 days

local granuloma 253

in 10 days widespread infection 234

Culsa Oklahoma 196

Tyrod's solution 107

U

Undetermined fungus 93, 31

Uveitis anterior

caused by inoculating eye 246

Unresolved pneumonia 459

V

Vaccine 8

need for in man 110

Vanderbilt 4, 19, 21, 24, 25, 26, 41, 5

Venezuela 6, 81, 190

Vicinal hydroxide in fungi basis of many stains 211

Visibility of components of calcification on x ray

not always equal—due to technical problems or to the slower calcification of the lymph nodes 344
or to resorption of lung lesion 345

Virginia

4 fatal cases 17, 84, 416

Virulence 32, 336

W

Weather important

optimum humidity and temperature 131, 132

Western Texas 93

West Virginia 94

Whitfield Murray counties Georgia

pulmonary findings in stronger skin reactions 20, 206

White mouse

used to demonstrate routes of infection 131, 249

Winds

implicated by some 81, 132

Wild animals

(rats hamsters guinea pigs chickens monkeys) are variable in reaction 263

Workers—in diamond mines 11

World Health Organization

found cases from many countries 9

X

X ray shadows (see also Chapter 17 on x rays)

chronic cavity shadows fibroid cavities 396

Y

Yeast in lesions 321

Yeast phase of *H. capsulatum* 5, 6

best temperature 67

buff colored to brown color 134

colonies round cream colored convex 58

conversion to mycelial phase 69

growth on sugars chemicals etc 68

large forms 62, 63

means of identification 130

membranous cerebriform 154

morphology 39

physiology of 63

produced by growing on

whole blood media humid atmos-

phere 37 temperature cystine

citric acid etc and 56

sensitivity

killed by drying freezing and physical agents 120

size 27, 28

suppressed by serum albumin 56

time to generate 6

Yellow fever

coming under control 10

